THE
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ART. I. *The Itinerary of Archbishop Baldwin through Wales*, A.D. M.C.LXXXVIII. by Giraldus de Barri; translated into English, and illustrated with Views, Annotations, and a Life of Giraldus. By Sir Richard Colt Hoare, Bart., F.R.S. F.A.S. 2 Vols. 4to. 8l. 8s. Boards. Miller. 1806.

WHEN we behold rank and wealth employed in advancing literature, in serving the arts, and in illustrating antiquity, the sight gratifies unfortunately not less by its rareness, than by the conviction of its beneficial effects. Men of taste, and lovers of curious information, those who deem it important to perfect our national history, will feel very sensible gratitude to the accomplished editor of the collections now before us; which bespeak the most laudable diligence, united to various attainments. Sir Richard Hoare has, indeed, introduced his author to the public with every possible advantage. A biographical sketch of the distinguished and singular Giraldus, composed with great spirit, but with perfect impartiality, and penned with neatness and elegance, stands first in these volumes. This is followed by a history of Britain under the Romans, which is very much confined within the limits of antient authorities, and is a model of chaste narrative; while the greatest light is thrown on it by references to those monuments of antiquity which have escaped the ravages of time, and the acts of ignorant and wilful dilapidators. The drawings of these venerable remains, also, which prodigiously enhance the interest of this splendid work, are not less pleasing in manner than the objects which they represent are precious.

We next come to a very elaborate article on the Roman camps, stations, and military roads, in this part of Britain. Here Sir Richard Hoare lays claim to praise beyond that which belongs to mere authorship. In order to illustrate these inquiries, he has undergone much personal toil and inconvenience, and has performed frequent and expensive journies. A summary of British history then ensues, from the departure of the

Romans down to the epoch to which the leading work in these volumes refers; viz. the Itinerary of Baldwin, Archbishop of Canterbury, in the year 1188, written originally in Latin, and which is here for the first time published in English. Book I. of the Itinerary closes the first volume. To each chapter of this journal are affixed annotations, describing the antient and present state of Wales, its castles, abbies, scenery, &c. which form not the least valuable part of the collection, being replete with information, and highly creditable to the industry of the ingenious editor.

Volume II. consists of the second book of the Itinerary, with similar annotations: of an account of Owen Cyveilioc, Prince of Powys, with a new version of his celebrated poem called the *Hirlas*, or *Drinking Horn*, and his circuits through Wales: of another work of Giraldus, intitled a Description of Wales in two books, enriched with notes by the editor: of a supplement, giving a short account of places omitted by Giraldus in his tour, with hints to landscape painters and architects: of the progress of architecture from the time of William the Conqueror to the sixteenth century, illustrated by designs selected from examples in South Wales; and of a list of publications relating to Wales.

The first particulars of this distinguished person are thus related by his biographer:

'Giraldus de Barri, distinguished by the name of Cambrensis, or the Cambrian, was descended from an illustrious lineage, being the fourth son of William de Barri, a person of high distincton, by Angharad daughter of Nest, who was the daughter of Rhys ap Theodor Prince of South Wales. He was born about the year 1146, at the castle of Manorbeer in Pembrokeshire, and at a very early age shewed strong marks of literary talents, and an earnest desire to dedicate himself to offices of religion. Whilst his brothers and their companions amused themselves with tracing fanciful figures on the sands, he was occupied in drawing churches and monasteries. His father, admiring these marks of his youthful propensity, predicted his future progress in learning, decided in his own mind on giving him the advantages of a learned education, and in joke used to call him his little bishop. At a time when the country was alarmed by an hostile invasion, and the youths of the castle rushed forth to arms, the boy Giraldus burst into tears, and requested to be carried into the church as a place of safety; thus, to use his own words, "with a wonderful foresight for his age, declaring the peace and privileges of the house of God." All those who heard him were much astonished that he should expect to find more security in a retired church, than in a castle strongly fortified, and well garrisoned with soldiers.

'Associating with his brothers and their companions, who were educated in the military profession, Giraldus had little opportunity of applying

applying his mind to study, until his uncle, David Fitzgerald Bishop of Saint David's, hearing of his character and natural inclination, drew him from the paternal roof, and undertook the care of his future education. He seems, however, at first to have made but little progress; for two masters to whom he was consigned, repeatedly jeered him for his slowness and ignorance in declining the Latin words *durus, durior, durissimus*, and *stultus, stultior, stultissimus*. These rebukes made so considerable an impression on the young scholar, that, actuated more by a sense of shame, than by discipline, he applied with such assiduity to his literary pursuits that he soon surpassed all his fellow students. To complete his education, he went to Paris, where he remained for three years, gave lectures on rhetoric and the belles lettres, and was pointed out by the doctors of the university, as a pattern to the young men of his age.

'On returning to England, about the year 1172, he entered into holy orders; and having obtained preferment both in England and Wales, and thinking himself "*non sibi sed patriæ natus*," he devoted his whole mind and abilities to the public good, and strenuously endeavoured to promote the interests of his church.'

This celebrated Cambrian appears to have been a zealous son of the church, and a strenuous asserter of her claims; in this respect, seemingly, not yielding to Becket himself. He was most active in directing the censures of the church to those of the clergy who had yielded to the dictates of nature, and entered into wedlock; and as a reward for his exertions of this kind, he was made Archdeacon of Brecknock. In his new dignity, an opportunity of signalizing his ecclesiastical prowess was not long wanting; and the transaction is so characteristic of the times, that we shall transcribe the account here given of it:

'Having been settled only a few days in his residence at Landeu, near Brecknock, after a very laborious journey he had taken to correct the abuses that prevailed in the provinces of Melyenith and Elven, he was surprised by the appearance of two clergymen, sent in a great hurry by the dean and chapter of that district, to inform him that Adam Bishop of Saint Asaph, was coming to dedicate the church of Keri, (which was situated on the confines of the two bishoprics, but of old had appertained to that of Saint David's) and that unless the archdeacon appeared there in person, nothing would prevent his taking possession of that church, or even the entire province; and they intimated likewise, that if no obstacles intervened, he intended to seize the whole territory between the rivers Wye and Severn, comprehending the districts of Melyenith and Elven. However harassed by his late expeditions, and dissuaded by his former companions and followers, who, more through fear of danger than fatigue, refused to accompany him; he, nevertheless, immediately proceeded on his journey towards the church of Keri. On the Saturday he dispatched messengers to two princes of that country, Eineon Clyd and Cadwalhon, requesting them to send some trusty

men of their families, provided with horses and arms, to assist him (if necessity required) in asserting the rights of the church of Saint David, as the Bishop of Saint Asaph was reported to be attended by a strong body of men from Powys; he slept that night at Llanbist, and on coming to Keri early on Sunday morning, found that two of the clergy, and partizans of the bishop, had concealed the keys of the church: these being at length found, the archdeacon entered the church, and, having ordered the bells to be rung, as a token of possession, he celebrated mass with great solemnity. In the mean time messengers arrived from the bishop, ordering preparations to be made for the dedication of the church. Mass being concluded, the archdeacon sent some of his clergy, attended by the dean of the province, to inform the bishop, "That if he came to Keri as a neighbour and a friend, he would receive him with every mark of hospitality; but if otherwise, he desired him not to proceed." The bishop returned for answer, "That he was coming in his professional capacity as bishop of the diocese, to perform his duty in the dedication of the church." The archdeacon and his clergy met the bishop at the entrance to the church-yard, where a long dispute arose about the matter in question, and each asserted their respective rights to the church of Keri. To enforce his claims the more, the bishop dismounted from his horse, placed his mitre on his head, and taking up his pastoral staff, walked with his attendants towards the church. The archdeacon proceeded to meet him, accompanied by his clergy, dressed in their surplices and sacerdotal robes, who, with lighted tapers and up-raised crucifix, came forth from the church in processional form: at length each began to excommunicate the other; but the archdeacon having ordered the bells to be rung three times, as the usual confirmation of the sentence, the bishop and his train mounted their horses, and made a precipitate retreat, followed by a great mob, and pelted with clods of earth and stones. This resolute conduct of the archdeacon gained him the approbation of all present, and even of the bishop himself, who was a fellow-student with him at Paris.

'The controversy at Keri being thus happily terminated, Giraldus went to the king at Northampton, and related what had passed between him and the Bishop of Saint Asaph, who claimed a parish belonging to the church of Saint David, and which, in fact, at that time (the see being vacant) had lapsed to the crown. The king commended the archdeacon's conduct in resisting the claims of the bishop, and excited a general laughter by telling the story to his courtiers who were at that time assembled.'

A great event in the life of Giraldus, and which had considerable influence in his future lot, is thus related:

'On the death of his uncle, David Fitz Gerald, the canons of Saint David's met in council, and, after a long debate, proclaimed Giraldus his successor; but the archdeacon thinking this election made too hastily and inconsiderately, and not according to the usual forms, went on the following morning to the chapter, and, contrary to the advice of all who were present, renounced the episcopal honours

honours that had been offered to him: for it was not customary to proceed on a new election until the death of the former bishop had been publicly announced, and a previous application made to the king, or his justiciary, and the royal assent obtained. The chapter however persisted in their choice, which so highly displeased King Henry, that he threatened to dispossess them of their lands and revenues. He summoned a council, and submitted the case to the consideration of Richard Archbishop of Canterbury and his suffragan bishops, desiring them to recommend a fit person to fill the vacant see: they unanimously recommended Giraldus, as a man of learning and spirit: but the king objected, saying, "That it was neither expedient or necessary to elect too upright or active a man to the vacant see of Saint David's, as such a choice might prove detrimental to the cathedral church of Canterbury, or even to the crown of England."

'At the dissolution of the council, the king confessed to the archbishop, and to a few of his confidential servants, that although he entertained a very high opinion of the talents and integrity of Giraldus, yet he thought it not safe to place a person so nearly related to Prince Rhys, and to almost all the nobility of Wales, at the head of the see of Saint David's; and that the pride and pretensions of the Welsh would be heightened by the promotion of so able, worthy, and resolute a man. When this conversation was repeated to Giraldus by Roger Bishop of Worcester, he exclaimed, "That such a public testimony, and given in such a place of audience, was more honourable to him than the best bishopric." Giraldus, unwilling to persist in opposition to the will of the king, and the canons wishing not to run the risk of losing their benefices, abandoned their claims, and a new election was made in the presence of the king at Winchester, when Peter de Leia, a monk of the Order of Clugny, and prior of the monastery of Wenloch in Shropshire, was unanimously chosen, at the recommendation of the king, and took possession of the episcopal see of Saint David's.'

Giraldus could not have been more than five-and-twenty years old at this period. Connected as he was with the country, attached to the diocese, and asserting the claims of its church, we cannot wonder that the desire of this high station followed him to a late period of his life; and, at each vacancy, the chapter of St. David's never failed to elect their zealous, learned, and eloquent countryman: but each time the jealousy of the court, or that of the English metropolitan, rendered it ineffectual. On one of these occasions, Giraldus was persuaded to invoke the interference of the Holy Father in favour of justice, and of the rights of the chapter: but having nothing to which he could trust but the goodness of his cause, and being unable to bribe, his want of success was universally anticipated in that age; and high as his claims were admitted to be, the Pope's decree set aside his election.

'At the conclusion of this business Giraldus returned to Paris, with a view of applying himself to the study of the belles lettres; and, to use his own expression, "to raise the walls of the canon law on the foundation of the arts and literature."

'He dwells with great rapture, and with no inconsiderable share of vanity, on the prodigious fame which he acquired by his eloquent declamation in the schools, and speaks of the crowded audiences of the doctors and scholars, who were unable to decide, whether the sweetness of his voice, the beauty of his language, or the force of his arguments, were most worthy of admiration: they were so fascinated, he adds, with his oratory, that they hung, as it were, suspended on his mouth, and were never fatigued with the most prolix or tedious discourse.'

On his return from Paris, he found the see of St. David's in a state of confusion; the bishop having quarrelled with the Welsh, and been obliged to fly. Giraldus soon afterward, by the advice of the archbishop, was appointed administrator of all the temporal and spiritual concerns of the church, which he conducted with great prudence and moderation.

Fame had made Henry conceive so high an opinion of Giraldus, that he appointed him preceptor to Prince John; with whom he went to Ireland as his secretary, and who offered him bishoprics in that country.

The occasion of the excursion which produced the Itinerary is related in the following passage:

'In the year 1187, King Henry, with many of his nobility, engaged themselves in the crusading expedition, which at that time was preparing throughout Europe, and Baldwin Archbishop of Canterbury was sent on this holy and enthusiastic mission into Wales; Ranulphus de Glanville, chief justice of the realm, accompanied him, and at Radnor they were met by Rhys ap Gruffydh, and by many illustrious chieftains of the country. The archbishop explained to them, and the multitude, the object of his mission, and Giraldus was the first person who took the cross; Peter de Leia Bishop of Saint David's, and many others, followed his example, and enlisted themselves under the consecrated banners. The archbishop and archdeacon were equally strenuous in their endeavours to gain proselytes; but the oratory of the latter prevailed more successfully than the high name and authority of the former. The effect produced by his discourse at Haverford was so great, that the archbishop oftentimes during his progress confessed that he never before on one day was witness to so much shedding of tears. At the conclusion of the sermon, near the bridge of Aberteivi, or Cardigan, where Prince Rhys, and a numerous concourse of people attended, a person by the name of John Spang thus addressed the prince: "You ought, indeed, to entertain a high opinion of this archdeacon, your son-in-law, for he hath this day enlisted a hundred men or more in the holy cause; and if he had spoken to the people in the Welsh language, I doubt

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if even one out of the whole number of your attendants had remained unenlisted." Giraldus compares the effect of his exhortations to those made by Saint Bernard, who preached the word of God to the Germans in the French tongue, and miraculously converted his hearers, although they neither understood a word of what he uttered, nor even required an interpretation. He insinuates that God assisted his pious endeavours, and relates a saying of some of his auditors, who at the conclusion of his discourse thus addressed him: "The Holy Spirit hath this day truely manifested relief in your mouth." King John is also said to have bitterly reproached Giraldus for draining his county of Pembroke of men, by persuading such numbers to take the cross and repair to the holy land. But although thus zealous and successful in preaching the cause of the crusade; yet on the death of King Henry, at whose instance he had taken the cross, he applied to the Cardinal Legate, John of Anagni, on behalf of himself and Peter de Leia Bishop of Saint David's, for absolution from the vows which each had made to go to the holy land; and which they obtained on the plea of age and poverty, but on condition that they should attend to the reparation of the cathedral church at Saint David's and give every assistance in their power to the crusaders who undertook the journey to Jerusalem.

'To the enthusiastic zeal, that once animated the breast of the archdeacon, we owe the present Itinerary through Wales, of which a translation is now, for the first time, submitted to the public, and which, amidst a multitude of idle stories and monkish legends, contains many curious and interesting particulars relative to the topography and history of that principality.

'During this journey Giraldus gained the good graces of the archbishop; that prelate highly praised his works, and strongly recommended him to the king; but Henry persisted in his resolution of not advancing him to any high preferment in the church.'

The bishoprics of Bangor and Landaff, however, were severally offered to Giraldus, but he declined them; his mind, it is supposed, being bent on his native diocese. It appears, indeed, that neither religious zeal nor ambition had blunted the sensibility of the distinguished Cambrian; and this trait exhibits to much advantage the popular and admired Giraldus.

Soon after this time, he was again elected by the chapter of St. David's to fill that see; and it was on this occasion that he made the fruitless appeal to Rome, to which we have before alluded. This suit lasted four years, and exposed him to various persecutions, all of which he bore with firmness and composure. A letter from him to Henry's Justiciary, the celebrated Ranulph de Glanville, shews that he knew the extent of legal protection, and that he did not want spirit boldly and resolutely to assert the rights of innocence. He convicts this high magistrate of having acted against him with precipitation and injustice; while the latter, on being informed that he had

proceeded on false information, immediately put a stop to the severe proceedings which he had commenced against the archdeacon. The claims of metropolitan rights over Wales, in favour of the see of St. David's, we apprehend, formed the principal cause which obstructed his elevation.

Though the court had sufficient power to disappoint the hope of Giraldus, yet was it unable to carry the election of any other without his concurrence. He at length yielded, and consented to the appointment of the prior of Lanthoni. An anecdote connected with this translation proves how ardently in those days these exalted stations were sought; and it displays the real and comparative state of South Wales at the period:

'Geoffrey de Henelawe was Prior of the convent of Lanthoni, near Gloucester, and by his skill in physic, had procured the friendship and acquaintance of Hubert Archbishop of Canterbury.

'During the interval of the long controversy between the archbishop and Giraldus, when Geoffrey de Henelawe was a candidate for the vacant see of Saint David's, a certain monk, coming out of Wales to Gloucester, thus addressed the Prior of Lanthoni: "I much wonder that you, being Prior of so sumptuous an establishment, placed in so fine and tranquil a situation, sheltered by excellent buildings, and abounding in fruitful vineyards, gardens, and orchards, should (as is reported) covet the poor little cathedral of Saint David's, situated in a barbarous and hostile territory; particularly as in the whole see there is scarce a single house where even a private man, much less a bishop or prelate, can get a decent lodging." To which the prior replied, "Why do you talk to me about the want of houses? why frighten me with the description of its dreary situation? for you know it is far preferable in my eyes to my present situation."

This priory was a dependency on the Abbey of the same name in the mountainous part of Monmouthshire.

Offended with the chapter of St. David's, and charging its members with weakness and duplicity, Giraldus was desirous of resigning his preferments, and having his nephew collated to them. In this design he had the good fortune to succeed; and it is a trait which, among many others, serves to shew the generous nature of Giraldus. It is said that he was often accustomed to address his nephew in the appropriate lines,

"*Disce, puer, virtutem ex me, verumque laborem;*
Fortunam ex aliis."

Having borne due testimony to his high descent, his abilities, and his firmness, the biographer adds:

'The frequent opportunities he takes of animadverting on the loose and profligate lives of the clergy and monks throughout Wales, as well as on the abuses and excesses which, by their bad conduct and

and management, had crept into the church, and which finally compelled him to quit his ecclesiastical preferment, sufficiently evince the morality of his character and principles.

'His conduct at Lincoln, and at many other places, displayed his humane and charitable disposition: and that he was disinterested as to pecuniary emoluments, and content with a moderate competency; the description of his residentiary retreat at Landeu, and his generous behaviour in resigning an archdeaconry and prebendary to his nephew during his own life-time, most amply prove.

'His ambition, which was chiefly displayed in so ardently seeking the episcopal throne of Saint David's, cannot be blamed; for when it was at last offered to him on dishonourable terms, his probity revolted, and spurned the proffered honour.

'The numerous works he composed on various subjects, at a time when the literary world was not assisted by the invention of types; the extensive knowledge, both in sacred, profane, and classical history and poetry, which his quotations demonstrate, afford the most convincing testimony of his abilities and learning. Our high opinion of his good sense and judgment must be in some degree lowered, when we recollect the repeated tales of wonder which he relates; his own words however prove, that he did not give implicit credit to all the miracles which he inserted in his works; for he says, "I know, and am well assured, that I have committed to writing some things that will appear ridiculous and even impossible, to the reader; nor do I wish that hasty credit should be given to every thing I have asserted, for I do not believe them myself."

If we have dwelt unusually long on the life of Giraldus, let it be recollected how interesting an object is a great proficient in learning of the twelfth century, who was besides a man of considerable natural abilities.

To the Itinerary is prefixed an address, inscribing it to Stephen Langton Archbishop of Canterbury; a name dear to every lover of British liberty, on account of the important part taken by that revered prelate in extorting from king John the venerable code of *Magna Charta*, the foundation of all our envied rights and privileges. These addresses are written in a style of simplicity which is very remote from the manner of our times. No suffragan bishop, at this day, would be so free with his Grace of Canterbury, as the Archdeacon of Brecknock was with his predecessor in the days of king John.

As to the celebrated Itinerary itself, which now comes under our consideration, it is filled with miracles, tales of ghosts, and marvellous relations; which manifest an imbecility and credulity that could scarcely be expected in a man who was capable of reasoning ably, and observing shrewdly on the rights of the church and his private concerns; a man who often rose to philosophical and sublime reflections, when treating of moral subjects; and to whom were familiar the finest sentiments of the

the Roman sages. Were it not for the annotations which are interposed between each chapter, we should find the perusal of this antient production highly irksome. It is chiefly valuable as a monument of the abject state of the human mind at that period. An extract or two will display the fanaticism of the age:

'The famous lake of Brecheinoc supplies the country with pike, perch, excellent trout, tench, and eels. A circumstance concerning this lake, that happened a short time before our days, must not be passed over in silence. "In the reign of King Henry the First, Gruffydh, son of Rhys ap Theodor, held under the king one comot, namely, the fourth part of the cantred of Caoc, in the Cantref Mawr, which, in title and dignity, was esteemed by the Welsh equal to the sourthern part of Wales, called Deheubarth. When Gruffydh, on his return from the king's court, passed near this lake, which at that cold season of the year was covered with water-fowl of various sorts, being accompanied by Milo Earl of Hereford, and Lord of Brecheinoc, and Payn Fitz John, Lord of Ewyas, who were at that time secretaries and privy counsellors to the king: Earl Milo, wishing to draw forth from Gruffydh some discourse concerning his innate nobility, rather jocularly than seriously thus addressed him: "It is an ancient saying in Wales, that if the natural prince of the country coming to this lake, shall order the birds to sing, they will immediately obey him." To which Gruffydh, richer in mind, than in gold (for though his inheritance was diminished, his ambition and dignity still remained), answered, "Do you, therefore, who now hold the dominion of this land, first give the command;" but he and Payn having in vain commanded, and Gruffydh perceiving that it was necessary for him to do so in his turn, dismounted from his horse, and falling on his knees towards the east, as if he had been about to engage in battle, prostrate on the ground, with his eyes and hands uplifted to Heaven, poured forth devout prayers to the Lord: at length rising up, and signing his face and forehead with the figure of the cross, he thus openly spake: "Almighty God, and Lord Jesus Christ, who knowest all things, declare here this day thy power. If thou hast caused me to descend lineally from the natural princes of Wales, I command these birds in thy name to declare it;" and immediately the birds, beating the water with their wings, began to cry aloud and proclaim him: the spectators were astonished and confounded; and Earl Milo hastily returning with Payn Fitz John to court, related this singular occurrence to the king, who is said to have replied, "By the death of Christ (an oath he was accustomed to use), it is not a matter of so much wonder; for although by our great authority we commit acts of violence and wrong against these people, yet they are known to be the rightful inheritors of this land."—

'We slept in the monastery of St. Dogmael, where, as well as on the next day at Aberteivi, we were handsomely entertained by Prince Rhys. On the Cemmeis side of the river, not far from the bridge, the people of the neighbourhood being assembled together, and Rhys, and his two sons, Malgon and Gruffydh being present, the word

word of the Lord was persuasively preached both by the Archbishop and the Archdeacon, and many were induced to take the cross: one of whom was an only son, and the sole comfort of his mother, far advanced in years, who stedfastly gazing on him, as if inspired by the Deity, uttered these words: "O most beloved Lord Jesus Christ, I return thee hearty thanks for having conferred on me the blessing of bringing forth a son, whom thou mayest think worthy of thy service." Another woman at Aberteivi, of a very different way of thinking, held her husband fast by his cloak and girdle, and publicly and audaciously prevented him from going to the Archbishop to take the cross; but three nights afterwards, she heard a terrible voice saying, "Thou hast taken away my servant from me, wherefore what thou most lovest shall be taken away from thee." On her relating this vision to her husband, they were struck with mutual terror and amazement; and on falling to sleep again, she unhappily overlaid her little boy, whom, with more affection than prudence, she had taken to bed with her; the husband relating to the bishop of the diocese both the vision and its fatal prediction, took the cross, which his wife spontaneously sewed on her husband's arm.

'Near the head of the bridge where the sermons were delivered, the people immediately marked out the site for a chapel on a verdant plain, as a memorial of so great an event; intending that the altar should be placed on the spot where the Archbishop stood, while addressing the multitude; and it is well known that many miracles (the enumeration of which would be too tedious to relate) were performed on the crouds of sick people who resorted hither from different parts of the country.' (Vol. II. p. 38.)

Of the famous Prince Gruffydh above mentioned, we have this account:

'Gruffydh ap Rhys—Was son of Rhys ap Theodor, who in the year 1090 was slain in battle, not far from Brecknock. About the year 1113, "there was a talke through South Wales, of Gruffyth, the sonne of Rees ap Theodor, who for feare of the king had beene of a child brought up in Ireland, and had come over two yeares passed, which time he had spent privilie with his freends, kinsfolk, and affines; as with Gerald steward of Penbroke his brother-in-law, and others. But at the last he was accused to the king, that he intended the kingdome of South Wales as his father had enjoied it, which was now in the king's hands; and that all the countrie hoped of libertie through him; therefore the king sent to take him. But Gruffyth ap Rees hering this, sent to Gruffyth ap Conan Prince of North Wales, desiring him of his aid, and that he might remaine safelie within his countrie; which he granted, and received him joiouslie for his father's sake." He afterwards proved so troublesome and successful an antagonist, that the king endeavoured by every possible means to get him into his power. To Gruffyth ap Conan he offered "mountaines of gold to send the said Gruffyth or his head to him." And at a subsequent period, he sent for Owen ap Cadogan, and said to him, "Owen, I have found thee true and faithful unto me, therefore I desire thee to take or kill that murtherer Gruffyth ap Rees,

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that doth so trouble my loving subjects." But Gruffyth escaped all the snares which the king had laid for him, and in the year 1137, died a natural and honourable death: he is styled in the Welsh Chronicle, "the light, honor, and staie of South Wales;" and distinguished as the bravest, the wisest, the most merciful, liberal, and just of all the princes of Wales. By his wife Gwenlhian, the daughter of Gruffyth ap Conan, he left a son, commonly called the Lord Rhys, who met the Archbishop at Radnor, as is related in the first chapter of this Itinerary.'

[*To be continued.*]

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ART. II. *A Sporting Tour through the Northern Parts of England, and great Part of the Highlands of Scotland*; including Remarks on English and Scottish Landscape, and general Observations on the State of Society and Manners. Embellished with Sixteen Engravings, by Messrs. Medland, Pouncy, Landseer, Peltro, &c. From Paintings made on purpose, by Mr. Garrard. By Colonel T. Thornton, of Thornville Royal, in Yorkshire. 4to. pp. 340. 1l. 15s. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

WITH the progress of civilization and mental improvement, the amount of human knowlege is enlarged, and its departments are distributed into regular divisions, which receive their denominations from the circumstances or properties that chiefly characterize them. Hence every genus and species of literature become distinctly defined, and subjected to the commodious and philosophical form of nomenclature; while each subsequent discovery easily finds its appropriate rank and station, and contributes to the former stock of information. To this pleasing and animated view of the regulated multiplication of ideas, we are unwilling to assign any other limits than those of the duration of our race; and we confess that we entertain no large portion of charity for those narrow and superficial observers, who would endeavour to convince us that all the possible varieties of even the most familiar subjects are already exhausted. We have, indeed, often adverted to the wonderful diversity of books of travels; such as the descriptive, the political, the geological, the philosophical, the sentimental, &c. &c. but we still reckoned it within the compass of intellect, combined with genius, to detect some non-descript species; and the title of the work now before us sufficiently proves that our expectations were not chimerical.

In justice to the author, we shall preface our analytical report of his novel production, by requesting our readers to treat it with much less levity than its *trivial* appellation might naturally suggest; since we are warranted in stating that a sporting tour is a very serious concern, and may not unaptly be

compared

compared to the commentaries of Cæsar, or the military narratives of Frederick the Great. It likewise deserves to be distinctly recorded that, though Colonel Thornton voluniteered his services, he spared no time, trouble, expence, nor risk, in planning and conducting the grand expedition, of which the history will now descend to posterity. His naval and land equipments were completed on a very liberal scale, without subtracting a shilling from the public money; and the ingenious precautions and expedients to which he had recourse, in order to secure a plentiful supply of ammunition, forage, and generous cheer in a land of heath and blue mists, will be gratefully acknowleged by the gallant few, who, incited by his illustrious example, may be tempted to engage in enterprizes of "great pith and moment." We may safely commend his general orders, and his regular returns of killed and wounded, as models of precision; and, as the bard of Mantua tosses his dung with grace and dignity, the hero of Thornville Royal marshals his hodge-podge and bacon in elegant array.

That such of our readers, as are strangers to the incomparable work itself, may form some conception of the nature and extent of the Colonel's preparations, we must not forget to mention that he, first of all, engaged Mr. Garrard, a pupil of Gilpin, and an excellent walker, to delineate the romantic scenes which lay on the line of march. 'A very curious boat,' a portable kitchen, and a great variety of useful articles, were ordered in London. The boat was delivered at Hull:- but it grieves us to relate that Mr. Merlin failed in providing the kitchen. On this melancholy occasion, our magnanimous tourist, disdaining to indulge in a single peevish or resentful expression, thus coolly continues his narrative;—'and now having hired a cutter, I embarked all my stores, servants, guns, dogs, nets, oatmeal, beans, &c. together with the two boats, (for I had purchased a second, in order that Mr. P.'s plans and mine might not interfere; a mode which, in like cases, I would recommend every sportsman to adopt implicitly,) and the whole being ready for sea, only awaited a favourable breeze, which soon after sprung up.'—With that enviable degree of philosophy which seems seldom to have abandoned him, he likewise renounced for the good of the service his favourite scheme of navigating his own squadron.

'We went, however,' (says he,) 'on board our vessel, which we christened The Falcon. The largest boat, which was made for me in London, I named the *Ville de Paris*, as a small honorary tribute to the brave Lord Rodney, whose singular good fortune, in taking the commanders in chief of two squadrons of France and Spain, in one war, is hardly to be paralleled in the annals of naval transactions.

The

The other boat, destined for Mr. P.'s use, was called, for similar reasons, the Gibraltar, and, it being the 4th of June, we ordered the crew an additional quantity of flip, upon the occasion, to drink the health of our gracious sovereign, and then, trusting to the good fortune which attends every thing done on this auspicious day, we were set on shore, the sails were spread, the crew gave us a salute, and, with colours flying, the vessel fell down the Ouse for Hull. At this place she was to take in biscuits, porter, &c. as well as ale and small beer, (the latter being a necessary I had found great want of,) and then set sail for Forres,' &c.

The hospitable and polite attentions of Mr. L. a brother sportsman, and of his lady, could not detain the leader and his party a single night; for 'dispatch was necessary,' and direful disasters might have ensued from supping at Northallerton rather than at Darlington. The Colonel's love of expedition is, indeed, highly commendable. In spite of the late supper at Darlington, he rose 'very early' next morning; at Newcastle, dinner was 'soon on the table;' and, the party being determined not to loiter, 'they made all possible expedition, drank a few glasses of wine, and then proceeded for Morpeth.' The next paragraph begins with 'Rose again very early,' and proceeds to acquaint us that time could not be spared for fishing in the beautiful river Cocket, which was then in good condition. It fared otherwise with the Teviot; as it appears, by the returns, that the Colonel deprived it of 39 trout, and his companion, Mr. P of 3.—Two days afterward, this last named gentleman killed with his gun 'several beautiful white birds, which proved to be *kittiwakes* *. The young of this bird are a favourite *whet* in North Britain, being served up a little before dinner to procure an appetite; but, from their rank smell and taste, they seemed to me more likely to have a contrary effect. I was told of a stranger, who was set down, for the first time, to this kind of relish, as he supposed; but, after demolishing half a dozen, with much impatience, he declared that he had "eaten sax, and did na find himself a bit *more* † hungry." A similar story is told of a late duchess, who, having ate a Soland goose ‡, found no advantage.'

It is impossible to follow the busy journalist after he commences his bloody career, without transcribing a large portion of his volume: but the relation of slaughter is sometimes agreeably relieved by such important communications as these:—

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* *Tarrocks. Larus tridactylus*, Lin. (*Rev.*)
† The dialect requires *mair*. (*Rev.*)
‡ Gannet. *Pelecanus Bassanus*, Lin. (*Rev.*)

'Returned to the inn, passed a very pleasant hour or two, and drank the "Fisher's Delight," in a couple of *magnums* of very good claret.'—'Sent for a blacksmith to examine into the state of the carriages, and put every thing in proper order.

'Ordered in two large chests of biscuits, several Cheshire and Gloucester cheeses, together with a number of Yorkshire hams, reindeer, and other tongues, hung-beef, &c. in order to be amply provided for a large party. Also laid in about seventy pound weight of fine gunpowder, shot, &c. Bought an additional quantity of fishing-tackle, with six or seven excellent rods, from that ingenious maker *M'Lean*, and, having provided divers portable gun-cases, plaids, and other necessaries, the baggage-waggons were ordered to be ready to set forward in a few days, by Stirling, for Raits.'

On the Colonel's personal exertions and prowess, we may always rely with implicit confidence: but in the choice of his auxiliaries he is sometimes unfortunate, and a whole day's sport was lost by the misconduct of an individual: viz.—'In order to secure sport, I had sent off the evening before, a hair-dresser, who, when I was at college, used to attend me, and other friends, on fishing parties, in order to procure me pike baits; and for him we impatiently waited some hours: he at length made his appearance, attended by two of his fraternity, who brought us literally no other baits than *pickled herrings*. Our prospects with such apparatus could of course not be great, we therefore relinquished the idea of sport for that day, and, taking a general view, formed plans for the next.'

Adventures and incidents thickened rapidly as the expedition proceeded from Glasgow, by Dumbarton, Loch Lomond, Inverary, Taymouth, &c. to *Raits*, a habitation not very remote from the *ultima Thule*, and on which the commander had fixed as his head-quarters during great part of the campaign. When within two days' march of this station, we are informed that dinner was served about eight o'clock, and consisted of

'Hodge podge,
pudding ——— greens,
trout and char,
roast mutton, excellent.

'Second Course.

'Brandered chickens,
cold hams,
snipes,
Cheshire cheese—biscuits.

'Wines.

Claret, good.—Port, ditto,
limes, Jamaica rum, and
incomparable *porter* from *Calvert's*.'

The

The voyagers, meanwhile, had sprung a leak, and with great difficulty got into Whitby, where the vessel underwent a thorough repair, and then proceeded successfully to Forres. The cargo was conveyed over the mountains in forty-nine small carts of the country. Sledges were prepared for the carriage of the boats, but were in the end found unserviceable, and 'the boats came perfectly safe without them.'

We regret that we cannot afford room for the details of a memorable exploit, atchieved on the 30th of July, when the Colonel, Captain Waller, and their attendants, finally succeeded in bringing on shore a huge pike, 'a famous fellow,' weighing between forty-seven and forty-eight pounds. Suffice it to say, in the author's own words, 'he was completely spent, and, in a few moments, we landed him, a perfect monster! He was stabbed by my directions in the spinal marrow, with a large knife, which appeared to be the most humane manner of killing him, and I then ordered all the signals with the *sky-scrapers* to be hoisted; and the whoop re-echoed through the whole range of the Grampians. On opening his jaws, to endeavour to take the hooks from him, which were both fast in his gorge, so dreadful a forest of teeth, or tushes, I think I never beheld: if I had not had a double link of gimp, with two swivels, the depth between his stomach and mouth would have made the former quite useless. His measurement, accurately taken, was *five feet four inches*, from eye to fork.'

The ensuing very important communication was issued on the 17th August. 'Orders.—'That *Jonas* and *Jack*, with one of the baggage-waggons, do proceed with the necessary apparatus, as by order, to Avemore, and there remain for farther instructions.'—The general orders of the 25th August are not less indicative of the skill and spirit of the commander:—

'Mr. Lawson will observe, that the encampment is to be pitched according to the plan given, without the least deviation.

'Further; as the ancient mode of encamping seems greatly to excel the modern, he will follow that, as nearly as may be, for a model.'

The invaluable maxim of allowing ample time in gorge-fishing is thus enforced with exquisite wit and humour: 'I recommend it to every fisher in this way to read a sermon between the times of striking at his fish and his striking at the bait; and, in failure of a sermon, possibly a chapter in the *Pilgrim's Progress* might be found a pretty substitute.'

Col. T.'s havock among the moor-game ostensibly ceased on the 2d of October, a cold and very windy day, when the birds had become very wild, and the fire was *constantly* blown from the powder: yet he retires from the heath in truly gallant style.

'My

'My last shot,' says he, 'on taking leave of the moors, I am convinced was at the distance of a hundred and ten yards, on horseback, and at a trot. I hit my bird, and thinking, as it was so far off, it was only slightly wounded, ordered the devil to be flown; but, on coming up, found that the bird, though an old one, had her wing broke, and was otherwise so much cut, that she could not fly.'

'I determined now to take my final adieu, being near Raits, with this *coup d'éclat*;'—and here we determine to close our account of the *serious* operations that are recorded in the *Sporting* Tour. The last epithet will still be found applicable, in its most extensive sense, if we reflect on the laughable incidents which so pleasantly beguile the recitals of destruction. An early example of merriment occurs on the banks of the Teviot:

'I raised and killed a few tolerable trout: my companion was not so fortunate, and blamed his bad luck; when, desirous of seeing his cockney-mode of fishing, I perceived that he fished with a fly as he would with a worm. I was polite enough to look as grave as any fly-fisher could be supposed to do, till he walked down the stream, not without taking a view of the paltry trout I had caught with a mixture of surprise and envy.

'As soon as I conceived him fairly out of hearing, I gave vent to my hitherto stifled emotions, and, laughing immoderately, my foot slipped, and I had nearly gone headlong into the river. He, it seems, had heard me, and, very good-naturedly, came and asked me, what the d—l I was laughing at, and whether I had seen a female, or any other cause of such extraordinary mirth. I begged he would forgive me; and then plainly told him my mirth was occasioned by his style of fly-fishing. He looked rather disconcerted,' &c. &c.

We may add that Colonel Thornton, with much good humour, condescends to *hoax*; and when he wishes to amuse himself or his readers, he *decoys* his companions into the belief that they have shot a ptarmigan or a roebuck. He possesses, moreover, the singular felicity of *sporting* with orthography and grammar, both in French and English; as when he writes *gutteral*, *Berduce* for *Bardorvie*, *Gunoch* for *Guroch*, *Stilliards* for *Steel-yards*, *Auch Lorn* for *Auchloyne*, *Cree in la Roche* for *Crienlarick*, *revellie* and *revellié* for *reveil*, *toute ensemble* for *tout ensemble*, *bon bouche* for *bonne bouche*, *fasçade* for *façade*, *Glen Orgue* for *Glen Orchy*, *Arhenless* for *Ardkinlas*, *Finlaster* for *Finlayston*, *Netherton* for *Netherby*, *hern* for *heron*, *Bamoly* for *Barnaby*, &c. &c. &c. The dislocation of the following sentence presents a lively image of the bustle described: 'I had no defence, but parrying, as skilfully as I could, with my whip and my hat: the latter I took off to allow him to seize it, when he had broken the whip, which he soon did, and intended, as

soon as he had fairly seized the hat, by some violent kicks, on the tender parts of his belly, to defend myself, or rather to defeat my antagonist; a way, when at college, and finding myself on this *métier*, I have often effected, under that very superior master, in this mode of fighting, Mr. C—n.' Other sentences are susceptible of two or more interpretations, and thus denote fertility of genius. For instance: 'Saw the skeleton and jaws of a trout, destroyed, as I suppose, by an otter, *which*, *at least*, must have been ten pounds weight.' 'The ladies now came up to me, *whom* Captain Waller had politely conducted,' &c. 'As we proceeded, considering whether we should return and sleep at Rothemurcos, or how we should act, I discovered the boat, by the faint light we had of a partial moon, and, coming up to *her*, found *she* was padlocked, and almost full of water.'—In general, our humane tourist prefers *killing* syntax to merely *wounding* it; as when he informs us that 'each pointer *were*,' 'the wind and hill *was* against,' 'the general appearance—is such as *beseem*,' 'anxiety and terror *destroys*,' &c. A Caledonian word or phrase is sometimes allowed to creep into the text, very slyly, and without explanation; such as *scart*, *bley-berry*, *heather*, *blink*, *wizened*, *stook*, *muratt* (though more correctly, *morot*), &c. The author has also frequently recourse to a modern foreign term, when an ordinary writer would have been contented with a vernacular one; as *auberge* for *inn*, *métier* for *business*, *abîmé* for *immersed*, &c. Another cunning device is to *sport* with hackneyed Latin quotations, and so impart to them a novel and ludicrous appearance: e. g.

"*Per varios* causas *per tot* discrimine *rerum tendimus*."
"Credit *qui vult*."
"*Incidet in Scyllam cupiens evitare Carybdim*."

A still bolder deviation from the beaten track is an easy and careless *sporting* with matters of fact; of which, instances occur in transferring a phænomenon observed in Loch Tay to Loch Awe, in the definition of whiskey, in the profound remarks on plumbago, and in the assertion that Smollett erected his own monument, in defiance of the inscription, which bears testimony that it was a grateful tribute from his cousin-german.—In closing our enumeration of the peculiar excellencies of the Sporting Tour, we cannot refrain from celebrating the wonderful condescension of the author, who is pleased to acquaint us when he breakfasted, and when he dined, when he wrote letters, received guests, sprained his ancle, or got wet with rain. When we add that his draftsman has executed his views in a very masterly style, we feel no hesitation in pronouncing the whole work *unique*, and worthy of a distinguished niche in

in the libraries of the opulent and the curious.——In the next article, we shall notice a *Sporting Tour in France*, by the same author.

Muir.

ART. III. *A Sporting Tour through various Parts of France, in the Year* 1802: including a concise Description of the Sporting Establishments, Mode of Hunting, and other Field-Amusements, as practised in that Country. With general Observations on the Arts, Sciences, Agriculture, Husbandry, and Commerce: Strictures on the Customs and Manners of the French People, with a View of the comparative Advantages of Sporting in France and England. In a Series of Letters to the Right Hon. the Earl of Darlington. To which is prefixed an Account of French Wolf-hunting. By Colonel Thornton, of Thornville-Royal, Yorkshire. Illustrated with upwards of eighty correct and picturesque Delineations from original Drawings from Nature, by Mr. Bryant, and other eminent Artists. 2 Vols. 4to. 3l. 13s. 6d. in extra Boards. Longman and Co. 1806.

THOUGH several of our remarks on the Sporting Tour in Scotland will equally apply to this *brace* of splendid volumes, the two publications differ in more respects than merely in that of quantity of matter. In the course of the present narrative, our interest is seldom exerted by perilous adventures among bleak mountains, we are less frequently presented with the symmetrical details of the table, and the precision of military orders is wholly suppressed. The Colonel seems to have hunted a saleable estate with more solicitude than he pursued the wolf or the boar; and yet he returns to England without concluding a bargain. To compensate these defects and disappointments, the embellishments are more numerous and diversified; and the episodes, in general, are more lively and appropriate.

For the ensuing impressive passage we are indebted to a friend of the editor:

"We descended by a path called *le sentier de Rousseau*," says this gentleman, "and taking a circuit, round the lake, returned by the other side of it to the village, to procure a guide to conduct us through the park; the objects of curiosity in which, we had been informed, were too numerous to be all discovered without such assistance, as well as too deserving of attention to hazard the missing of any of them. We passed by the *château*, which is the usual country residence of the Marquis de Girardin, to whom Ermenonville belongs. It stands on a river, and its situation in the midst of water, was all we observed remarkable in it. Two *pavillions*, as the French call them, standing in a line, about thirty yards on each side from the body of the house, serve as wings to it. In that on the right hand as we faced the house, died Rousseau. He had resided there but a

little time before his death. We made several enquiries about his manner of living, and were informed that he got his meat from the market of Ermenonville; his table, as may be supposed, was modest and frugal, suited to the simplicity of his taste, and mediocrity of his circumstances. He sometimes dined with the Marquis de Girardin, but much less frequently than his noble patron would have wished. He had conceived a fondness for his younger son; he called him his little governor, and as he brought him every day to walk with him, he used to shew great impatience, if the boy delayed too long coming to him of a morning. He instructed him in the first principles of botany, and took pleasure in opening his mind to the beauties of nature. He also gave lessons in music to *Mademoiselle de Girardin*, and this was to him a favourite amusement. We enquired of our guide if he was affable, and if he conversed much with the inhabitants of the village. He told us he did, particularly with those that were poor, whom he delighted to assist by his instruction and advice. We made several other enquiries, and the answers we received, tended all to confirm us in the opinion we already entertained of him. But as the last moments of life are those alone in which the situation and sentiments of the human heart appear without disguise, and constitute therefore the best criterion, by which the virtues of the man can be ascertained; in justice to Rousseau's memory, I shall beg leave to subjoin the following account of his death, written by an eye-witness, with that air of candour and sincerity, which sufficiently warrants the truth of the circumstances related in it.

"In the afternoon on Wednesday, July 1st, 1778, he *(Rousseau)* took his usual walk with his *little governor*, as he called him; the weather was very warm, and he several times stopped and desired his little companion to rest himself (a circumstance not usual with him) and complained, as the child afterwards related, of an attack of the cholic; which, however, was entirely removed when he returned to supper, so that his wife had even no suspicion of his being out of order. The next day he arose at his usual hour, went to contemplate the rising sun in his morning walk, and returned to breakfast with his wife.

"Sometime after, at the hour she generally went out about her family business, he desired her to call and pay a smith that had done some work for him; and charged her particularly to make no deduction from his bill, as he appeared to be an honest man. His wife had been out but a few minutes, when returning she found him sitting in a straw-chair, and leaning with his elbow on a nest of drawers. What is the matter with you, my dear, says she: do you find yourself ill? I feel, replies he, a strange uneasiness and oppression, besides a severe attack of the cholic. Madame Rousseau upon this, in order to have assistance without alarming him, begged the porter's wife to go to the *château*, and tell that her husband was taken ill. Madame de Girardin being the first whom the news reached, hurried there instantly, and as that was with her a very unusual hour of visiting Rousseau, she, as a pretext for her coming, asked him and his wife, whether they had not been disturbed in the night by the noise made in the village? "Ah! madame," answered Rousseau, in a tone of voice

voice that declared the feeling he had of her condescension; "I am perfectly sensible of your goodness, but you see I am in pain, and to have you a witness of my sufferings, is an addition to them, and both your own delicate state of health, and the natural tenderness of your heart, unfit you for the sight of other people's sufferings. You will do me a kindness, and yourself too, madam, by retiring and leaving me alone with my wife for some time." She returned therefore to the *château*, to leave him at liberty to receive, without interruption, such assistance as his cholic required, the only assistance in appearance which he stood in need of.

"As soon as he was alone with his wife, he desired her to sit down beside him. Here I am, my dear; how do you find yourself? The cholic tortures me severely, but I intreat you to open the window; let me once more see the verdure that covers the face of nature; how beautiful it is! My dear husband, what do you mean by saying so? It has always been my prayer to God, replied he with the most perfect tranquillity, to die without doctor or disease, and that you might close my eyes; my prayers are on the point of being heard. If I have ever been the cause of any affliction to you; if by being united to me, you have met with any misfortune, that you would have otherwise avoided, I intreat your pardon for it. Ah, it is my duty, cried she all in tears, it is my duty and not yours, to ask forgiveness for all the trouble and uneasiness I have occasioned to you! But what can you mean by talking in this manner? Listen to me, my dear wife: *I feel that I am dying, but I die in perfect tranquillity; I never meant ill to any one, and I have a right to reckon upon the mercy of God.*"

"My friends have promised me never to dispose without your consent, of the papers I have put into their hands; the Marquis de Girardin will have the humanity to claim the performance of their promise. Thank the marquis and his lady on my part; I leave you in their hands, and I have a sufficient reliance on their friendship, to carry along with me the satisfactory certainty, that they will be a father and mother to you. Tell them I request their permission to be buried in their garden, and that I have no choice as to the particular spot. Give my *souvenir* to my little governor, and my botany to Mademoiselle Girardin. Give the poor of the village something to pray for me, and let the honest couple whose marriage I had settled, have the present I intended to make them. I charge you besides particularly, to have my body opened after my death, by proper persons, and that an exact account of the appearances and dissection be committed to writing.

"In the mean time the pains he felt encreased; he complained of shooting pains in the breast and head. His wife being no longer able to conceal her affliction, he forgot his own sufferings to console her. What, said he, have I lost all your affection already; and do you lament my happiness, happiness never to have an end, and which it will not be in the power of men to alter or interrupt? See how clear the heavens look, (pointing to the sky, in a kind of transport that seemed to collect all the energy of his soul) there is not a single cloud; don't you see that the gate of the blessed mansions is open,

and that God himself waits my approach? At these words he fell forwards, dragging his wife down along with him. Attempting to raise him, she finds him speechless and without motion. Her cries bring all within hearing to her assistance; the body is taken up and laid on the bed. At that moment I entered, and taking his hand, I found it still a little warm, and even imagined his pulse beat; the shortness of the time in which the fatal event had taken place, the whole having passed in less than a quarter of an hour, left me a ray of hope. I sent for the neighbouring surgeon, and dispatched a person to Paris, for a physician, a friend of Rousseau's, charging him to come without a moment's delay. I called for some *alkali volatil fluor*, and made him smell to and swallow it repeatedly, all to no effect. The consummation so delightful to him, and so fatal to us, was already completed, and if his example taught me how to die, it could not teach me to bear his loss without regret."

To the professional sportsman, we recommend the preliminary essay on wolf-hunting, as practised in France: but, for the sake of our more *gentle* readers, we shall proceed to some of the principal occurrences recorded in the diary.

Although the necessity of commencing his journey without his boat-carriage proved to the Colonel 'a source of infinite vexation,' the disappointment was, in some measure, compensated by the kind and flattering expressions which M. Otto had inserted in his passports; expressions which the author ascribes to a correspondence in which he had formerly engaged with his Majesty's ministers. 'That correspondence, however,' he adds, 'and another in which I was engaged with his Royal Highness the Duke of York, and other distinguished personages, will fully and more properly appear in the memoirs of my life, at this time arranging for the press.'—At Brighton, he becomes very erudite on the breeding and training of beagles; and he illustrates his favourite principle of 'getting the most stuff in the least room,' with more ability than he has displayed in the art of book-making.

Immediately on landing at Dieppe, the Colonel was recognized by some artificers from Ripon in Yorkshire, and drawn in his carriage from the pier. The men of this town, we are informed, wear very large hats, and the women very high caps, for which they pay from sixty to one hundred louis!—May we not charitably suppose *louis* to be an error of the press for *livres?*—Extensive tracts of champaign, fertile, and well cultivated country intervene between Dieppe and Rouen: but the author expresses his astonishment at the paucity of cottages and the immaturity of the corn, without reflecting that the French husbandmen and peasantry live mostly in towns and villages, and that he dates his letter on the 14th of June.

'At

'At Rouen,' says he, 'we again saw the tree of liberty, but here, as in almost every other place, this exotic, from the lopping and pruning it has undergone, seems to be in a very sickly condition. In this city, however, it is well protected, being planted opposite the barracks, by which means it is constantly defended by several regiments. I have been surprised that the Lombardy poplar should have been generally selected for this purpose; for the rapidity of its growth, and the shortness of its duration, are certainly very inconsistent with that stability which the republican politicians seem anxious to connect with the ideas of liberty instilled into the minds of the French people. Our sturdy oak, which continues to flourish amid the war of elements and the ravages of time, might have answered the purpose much better.'

As we cannot rehearse the divers feats of skill and dexterity achieved by the traveller, we shall be contented to quote the first that occurs:

'I now thought fit to take my air-rifle, of whose powers my companions had no conception; and conceal myself in the cover. The hounds being brought up, a young wild-boar passed me, when I got a fair shot at him at about fifty yards, and heard the ball hit him, though he did not seem to feel it. However at about thirty yards he began to stagger, and I followed, my gun being re-loaded instantaneously. The keepers now advanced, when we perceived the boar stretched on the turf, and so effectually wounded, that it seemed unecessary to shoot at him; but in order to try my gun, I took aim at his skull, and he immediately expired. On examining the first wound, it appeared that the ball had passed through his heart; in consequence of which, Colonel Marigny placed a hat in a tree, and requested me to trot his Hungarian horse, and endeavour to hit it at about sixty yards distance. I did as he desired, and very luckily took my aim so true, that the ball passed through the centre of the crown. The colonel was highly gratified, and, having heard me extol his Hungarian horse, as the surest-footed animal I ever rode, begged that I would recollect this shot, by accepting his horse, which he pressed so strongly upon me, that it was impossible to refuse the present. We then returned to the mansion, and, after expressing our obligations to the ladies, we set out for Rouen, having killed the wild-boar or *marcasin*, a score of rabbits, and several swallows.'

The convivial scene to which this adventure gave birth is celebrated in the Colonel's happiest manner:

'First was produced a large tray full of *green* oysters, as they are termed, in the same manner as Solan-geese are served up at Edinburgh, to whet the appetite. This spur to eating being removed, the dinner was served up, consisting of

'Soup, and Bouille. [Bouilli]
Capons. Un Salamis [Salmi] de Livre [Lièvre] being our hashed hare.
Maintenon cotelets.
Rabbits. Pâtés.
Petits of all sorts.

'The *marcasin* [*marcassin*] barbacued, very sumptuously dressed up with fruit and flowers, forming a most showy dish, and smoking hot, then appeared. The gentlemen, with great pomp, poured on the *marcasin* two bottles of Champaign, after which it was served to the company; and the entertainment concluded with an immense turbot. All kinds of melons were on the table, which you will be astonished to hear, were eaten with boiled beef, but such is the custom here, and even figs are occasionally eaten in the same manner!'

Paris and its environs are the subject of several letters: but we find in them little that is new or interesting, except when the Colonel himself, or a republican General, or the *then* First Consul, figures in the fore-ground. Of the last mentioned distinguished personage, we meet with the ensuing notices:

'Here we met with many English, who appeared particularly anxious to see the monthly parade, at which the First Consul always attends. This was expected to take place on the following Sunday; but I was enabled, from private information, to inform the company it was postponed. And, indeed, it is by no means surprising, that the chief Consul, who dedicates so much of his time to public business, and makes every other avocation a secondary object, should sometimes be under the necessity of changing the day set apart for this grand review. It is the opinion of some, that he has the real welfare of the country at heart, and that he admires show and ostentation no otherwise than as they conduce to the encouragement of the national manufactures. Having heard much of his habits of life, from General Moreau, who was intimately acquainted with him, I shall subjoin a few observations on the subject.

'The First Consul appears to be possessed of no passions except on business which relates to war or government. For instance, he cares but little for that amusement which he rather follows for bodily exercise and mental relaxation than for the pleasures *we* derive from the chase. Neither does he indulge in the least at table, or in the delights of the bottle; but his very soul seems absorbed in state affairs, and the grandeur of France appears to occupy the whole of his attention. It seems to be admitted, that France may deem herself fortunate in having the reins of government in such able hands; but time must prove how far this opinion is founded on justice. For my own part I have little to say on subjects of this nature, as it is, in my humble opinion, of little consequence who is the ruler of the country, provided that thirty millions of people have justice equally administered, and that in a manner admitting as few delays as possible. The procrastination and expenses attending suits in England, particularly in the court of chancery, are frequently known to ruin both parties; as, by fictitious delays, a cause which might have been decided in a few hours, becomes the subject of contest for many years, and after two generations have passed away, persons who were, at first, unconcerned in the dispute, have to pay or recover the final award. I have heard, and that on good authority, of chancery suits which have continued undecided for a whole century.'

Having

Having effected his presentation to the chief magistrate, in spite of various obstacles thrown in the way by Mr. Merry, the traveller thus proceeds:

'After waiting some time the doors were thrown open, and it was announced that the First Consul was ready to receive us. We accordingly made our *entrée*, forming part of a well-dressed crowd of all nations. Buonaparte first entered into conversation with the Portuguese ambassador, and then proceeded round the circle, conducting himself with great affability towards each individual who was introduced to him. When he came to the English, most of whom were in military or naval uniforms, he addressed himself in particular to those who had been in Egypt. When it came to my turn to be presented, he noticed my medallion, and enquired into the meaning of it. I told him, the legend was the *Triumph of Truth*, and that the medallion had been presented to me by the soldiers of the West-York militia, when I was Lieutenant-Colonel of that regiment, as a testimony of their esteem for myself and family. Buonaparte immediatedly replied with great animation, "Colonel, I admire such men;" and addressing himself to Mr. Merry he continued, "be pleased, Sir, to inform your countrymen, that I highly esteem their nation." He then proceeded regularly round the circle, conversing with every one, as I have before stated.

'With respect to the person of Buonaparte, he is about five feet two inches and a half in height, and well-proportioned, but rather stooping. His complexion is sallow, his hair brown, and his eyes of a greenish hue, strongly indicating the constant pressure of important business on his mind. But his countenance, which I had a full opportunity of examining, is very animated; in his manner he appears quick, and discovers great energy in all his decisions.'

The next anecdote which we shall transcribe is not the least deserving of attention:

'I had been invited to a *pic nic* party, and though I could not attend, a particular friend who was there mentioned a curious circumstance, which I shall now communicate to your Lordship. One of the party happened to be the famous *Tom Paine*, who, upon being asked for a toast, gave the following:—

"*England for Liberty, America for Happiness, but Paris alone for Pleasure.*"

'While the bottle was circulating, Paine allowed that he had been proscribed by the Americans as well as the French, but that *Robespierre* was not so infamous a character as was generally supposed, from his reigning during a system of anarchy and terror. He said he did not believe there were virtuous individuals enough existing to render the village of *Richmond*, in Surrey, a pure republic, for that every man, except the First Consul, was to be bribed So much for the sentiments of republican Paine, who has certainly had a sufficient share of experience to render him a tolerable judge of *equality*. This little

little anecdote, however, will give your Lordship an idea of the freedom of speech at this period in the metropolis of France.'

With all the gravity of a Roman Censor, the *sportsman* of Thornville Royal reprobates the diaphanous costume of the Parisian belles, and the meretricious movements of the waltz.—We pass to the providing cooks:

'The *traiteurs* of Paris have long been famous in the culinary calendar, like the keepers of our taverns and coffee-houses in London. They not only furnished dinners at their own houses, but occasionally sent them out to the mansions of such as honoured them with their commands; and as no person was allowed to set up in any line of business unless by purchase or succession, they consequently engrossed the whole profits of this *a*vocation.

'About the year 1765, however, a man named Boulanger conceived the ludicrous idea of opening a shop for *restorative soups*, and accordingly placed the following inscription over his door:—*Venite ad me omnes qui stomacho laboratis, et ego restaurabo vos.* "Come unto me all ye that labour in stomach, and I will restore you." The singularity of this inscription, the novelty of the trade, and the dearness of the provisions, soon put Boulanger into the possession of a tolerable fortune, and in a short time many other shops were opened on a similar plan, till at length the term of *restaurateur* has completely superseded that of *traiteur*.'

Of General Mortier, to whom Col. Thornton was introduced by order of the First Consul, he speaks in terms of the highest praise:

'In his person he is about six feet three inches high, being nearly fifty years of age, and altogether a remarkably handsome man. His manners denote him to possess a quick and penetrating mind, and, as an officer and a gentleman, he is certainly entitled to peculiar respect. From the period of my first introduction, we were on the most intimate terms, frequently visiting and dining together. I had also an *entré libre* to his house and table, which fully enabled me to judge of his character.'

It fares otherwise with a well-known agriculturist of this country, in a passage which appears to be one of the Colonel's *hoaxes*:

'On our return, the famous General Santerre made his appearance, and after some general conversation, he began a dissertation on farming, asking me if I knew A—— Y——, and on my replying in the affirmative, he requested to know what I thought of his work, as a farmer.

'I told him frankly, that I believed the work was ingeniously written on purpose to deceive; and, from the notes I had made during a journey of considerable length, with his book before me, I was firmly of opinion that he knew nothing of practical farming. I stated, that he had taken from government, some years ago, a small farm beyond Harrowgate, which was then worth almost 4000l. but

that,

that, after laying out 4000l. more of government money upon the property, he had managed the farm in such a manner, that its original value was reduced to one-fourth. With respect to his mode of procedure, I observed, that on finding the moor (for it was almost entirely moor-land) was springy, he had drained it with the turf thrown in; that the soil being of a cold, sandy nature, and having no clay on the surface, it had washed over; and in the course of a few years had filled up in such a manner, that the natural channel was stopped; of course, the whole was become an incorrigible bog, and it would take double the value of the fee-simple to restore it, as no animal could cross it without being completely bogged. I could not help adding, that Mr. ——'s farm, in Suffolk, was a complete bed of thistles, and other weeds; and that while he was inspecting the management of farms in Spain and Italy, he unfortunately forgot his own which he had left in England.

'Monsieur Santerre informed me, that, desirous of profiting from every instruction in the agricultural line, he had, some time before, dispatched a person over to England, who, on his arrival, and not finding Mr. Y—— at his farm, applied to his wife for permission to view it. With this request she readily complied, but at the same time assured him, there was nothing worthy of particular observation. He then requested to see Mr. ——'s famous breed of pigs, which had been extolled so highly. "We have no pigs," replied the lady. "What! no pigs?"—"No sir," rejoined she, "nor ever had any." "*Morbleu!*" exclaimed the gentleman, "does he not, in his treatise give an account of those animals, and the mode of treating them?"—"Lord! sir," said Mrs. —— in a fit of laughter, "I am sorry you should have come from France on such an errand. My husband *amuses* himself with writing and farming, and that is all." The General then gave me a curious account of his experiments in the breeding of horses, and thus terminated the conversation.'

Without staying to report various excursions to Orleans, Blois, Fontainbleau, Metz, &c. &c. we may remark that the observations to which they give rise usually breathe the spirit of a superficial good-natured rambler, who is by no means disposed to overlook his personal consequence. The general strictures on Parisian Society are at least amusing, and would have been perused with much eagerness at the period at which they were written.

An Appendix is devoted to some account of the principal hunting and sporting seats in England, among which Thornville Royal is by far the most conspicuous.

In return for the entertainment which the author has afforded us, we would counsel him to be less anxious, in his approaching biography, to display his acquaintance with the French language; and to be somewhat more tender of the concord of English nouns and verbs. As the manuscript of the present work and the drawings were generously communicated to

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an old school-fellow, for the benefit of a large and indigent family, we have only to add our sincere wishes that such a benevolent design may be crowned with success, by the adequate sale of a publication which is certainly calculated to afford amusement in its descriptions and its graphic representations.

Muir.

ART. IV. *An Essay on the Population of Dublin:* being the Result of an actual Survey taken in 1798, with great Care and Precision, and arranged in a Manner entirely new. By the Rev. James Whitelaw, M. R. I. A., Vicar of St Catharine's. To which is added, the General Return of the District Committee in 1804, with a comparative Statement of the two Surveys. Also, several Observations on the present State of the poorer Parts of the City of Dublin. 8vo. pp. 66. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

WE consider the public as greatly indebted to Mr. Whitelaw for the methodical and meritorious labours, the results of which are contained in the present volume. On a confined scale, he has pursued a course similar to that which has immortalized the benevolent Howard. Like him, "he has surveyed the mansions of sorrow and pain, remembered the forgotten, attended to the neglected, and visited the forsaken." He has not indeed made a progress into foreign countries, nor dived into the depths of dungeons: but he has found in the capital of his own country, within the limits of his own cure, an immense mass of almost incredible misery; and he has discovered, among those who are free to range at large, all the wretchedness and all the evils that can attend the most oppressive and the worst regulated confinement. We refer to the accounts here detailed of the nuisances which disgrace the police and government of the Irish Metropolis; accounts which it would be indeed difficult to believe on any evidence less precise and indisputable than that which is here produced.

The discovery of these nuisances was incidental to the steps pursued for ascertaining the population. Having stated the reasons for which it became necessary to have the residencies of the poor minutely examined, Mr. W. observes:

'My assistants and I, undeterred by the dread of infectious diseases, undismayed by degrees of filth, stench, and darkness inconceivable, by those who have not experienced them, explored, in the burning months of the summer of 1798, every room of these wretched habitations, from the cellar to the garret, and on the spot ascertained their population. In this business I expected opposition, but experienced none. So universal, at this period, was the dread of being

being suspected of disaffection, and so powerful was the secretary's seal and signature, that every person seemed anxious to assist; and, when this terror gradually subsided, a rumour circulated that I was employed by Government to take an account of the poor inhabitants preparatory to the adoption of some system for the relief of their necessities; which produced a similar effect, from a far more pleasing motive. In the course of the survey, one only of our number received a serious insult. In attempting to remonstrate with a butcher of Ormond-market, on the incorrectness of his list,* the human brute flung at him a quantity of blood and offals.'

In his laborious researches, the author was engaged for ten hours in each day for five successive months; and in presenting the result of them, he trusts that

'The work may be considered as a correct and faithful picture of the actual state of Dublin in the year 1798, and may, at any future period, be compared as such with its then existing state, in order to discover at a single glance, the changes, whether for better or worse, which have taken place in the lapse of time. For this purpose, not only the position of every house is given, with the population, and the proprietor's name and occupation; but its elevation or number of stories; whether it is modern-built or old; and whether, with respect to its state of repair, it is good, middling, bad or ruinous, are all expressed by appropriate marks. The width of the street at either end is also given, with its commencement and termination, and the intersections of other streets, lanes, &c. with their breadth where they enter it. If the contiguity of the houses be interrupted by a dead wall, waste ground, or any other object, its position and extent in yards are carefully marked. Public buildings are placed in their proper situations. The position of the different sides of each street, with respect to the points of the compass, with the parish in which it is situate, are expressed; and if the boundary line between two parishes cross it, the houses between which it passes are accurately noted. This seeming multiplicity of objects, with a variety of others unnecessary to detail, are, I think, minutely delineated, without the slightest confusion.'

As an instance of this gentleman's zeal and perseverance, and as a proof of inconceivable negligence in regard to the situation of the poor in the second capital of the British empire, we insert the subsequent extract:

'This crowded population, wherever it obtains, is almost universally accompanied by a very serious evil; a degree of filth and stench inconceivable, except by such as have visited those scenes of wretchedness. Into the back-yard of each house, frequently not ten feet deep, is flung, from the windows of each apartment, the ordure and other filth of its numerous inhabitants; from whence it is so seldom

* By order of the Lord Mayor, a list of the inhabitants of each house was required to be affixed to the door.

removed, that I have seen it nearly on a level with the windows of the first floor; and the moisture that, after heavy rains, ouzes from this heap, having frequently no sewer to carry it off, runs into the street, by the entry leading to the staircase. One instance, out of a thousand that might be given, will be sufficient. When I attempted, in the summer of 1798, to take the population of a ruinous house in Joseph's-lane, near Castle-market, I was interrupted in my progress, by an inundation of putrid blood, alive with maggots, which had, from an adjacent slaughter-yard, burst the back door, and filled the hall to the depth of several inches. By the help of a plank, and some stepping-stones, which I procured for that purpose (for the inhabitants, without any concern, waded through it), I reached the staircase. It had rained violently, and, from the shattered state of the roof, a torrent of water made its way through every floor, from the garret to the ground. The sallow looks, and filth of the wretches, who crowded round me, indicated their situation, though they seemed insensible to the stench, which I could scarce sustain for a few minutes. In the garret, I found the entire family of a poor working shoemaker, seven in number, lying in a fever, without a human being to administer to their wants. On observing that his apartment had not a door, he informed me that his landlord, finding him not able to pay the week's rent, in consequence of his sickness, had the preceding Saturday taken it away, in order to force him to abandon the apartment. I counted in this stye thirty-seven persons; and computed, that its humane proprietor received out of an absolute ruin, which should be taken down by the magistrate as a public nuisance, a profit rent of above 30*l.* per annum, which he exacted, every Saturday night, with unfeeling severity. I will not disgust the reader with any further detail, and only observe, that I generally found poor room-keepers of this description, notwithstanding so many apparent causes of wretchedness, apparently at ease, and perfectly assimilated to their habitations. Filth and stench seemed congenial to their nature; they never made the smallest effort to remove them; and, if they could answer the calls of hunger, they felt, or seemed to feel, nothing else as an inconvenience.'

Mr. Whitelaw next takes notice of the pernicious manufactures, the crowded cow-houses, and the numerous cemeteries within the precincts of the city of Dublin. His remarks on the latter subject are those of a liberal and enlightened man, and unfortunately are not less applicable to our own than to the Irish capital. He states also the mischiefs which are occasioned by the dram shops.

The population of Dublin is here made to amount to 172,091 souls, which differs very little from the return given by the District Committee.

Jo.

ART.

ART. V. *Anthropaideia, or a Tractate on General Education.* By Andrew Cowan, M.D. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Wallis.

THOUGH the British press ushers the production before us to the light of day, we believe that it is of trans-atlantic origin; at least it is clear that the author had his education in the western hemisphere. A performance which would have slight pretensions in this country may, perhaps, in America, present claims to considerable merit. In a new state, knowlege, which is as it were naturalized in a more advanced society, is only to be acquired by application. Among our American brethren, therefore, we must not expect to find models of composition, displayed in that chaste manner and pure style which are the result of regular advances in literary cultivation: but their deficiency in this respect may be compensated by vigour of thought and originality of sentiment. The work before us is not without pretentions of this nature. On the important subject which it discusses, many changes and reforms are suggested, without, as it appears to us, adverting to the different situations of the new and the old world: but it offers also many observations of great weight and importance, which are applicable to all places and all times. If the reader can have the patience to travel over a great mass of commonplace remarks, he will find interspersed among them hints and suggestions highly deserving of attention and consideration.

In the first part, the author treats of the faculties and qualities of the human mind. He appears to be conversant with some of the leading writers on the subject, but he is a stranger to Hartley; and if he be acquainted with the representations of what has been called abstraction made by Berkeley, and the author of the Επεα Πτεροεντα, he either rejects them, or deems them not worthy of notice. The unwarrantable and flippant manner in which he speaks of the admirable performance of Professor Dugald Stewart is highly indecent and reprehensible. We would advise him carefully to study and digest grave works by men of high name and authority, before he presumes to sit in judgment on them. He does not seem to have much of a metaphysical *tact*, nor to be enriched with large stores of erudition: but many of his moral and practical observations indicate a liberal and feeling disposition.

Dr. Cowan next considers the mind as affected by external objects, natural and artificial: a mode of viewing the subject of education which is not less philosophical than novel. We do not, however, feel ourselves authorized to add that the execution is equal to the plan.—The business of education is here stated to

be, 'so to regulate the emotions of pleasure and pain that the greatest vigour and energy may be imparted to the mind.'—As fair specimens of the spirit in which the author writes, and of the ingenuity which he displays, we subjoin these passages:

'The inefficacy of all other means, except such as operate directly upon the bodily organs of sense in actuating the minds of children, has obliged those to whose care their education has been entrusted, to have recourse to bodily punishment, or bodily gratification, in order to stimulate the infant mind to exertion. Put the conduct of those who act without any principle at all, which, indeed, is the case with almost all mankind, must always be uncertain, and very generally pernicious. We cannot. therefore, suppose that the usual modes of actuating the infant mind, employed by parents and tutors, are adapted to promote the best effects: on the contrary, a minute examination of their nature must convince us, that they are highly detrimental. The influence of education, as it is at present conducted, tends almost universally not only to pervert and weaken the intellect, but also to corrupt the heart. To excite to action any living creature whatever by pain and torment, while we have it in our power to produce the same effects by pleasurable excitement, seems too absurd and too detestable an idea to enter into the mind of man. It seems, therefore, useless to enter into a serious refutation of such absurd conduct. I shall only endeavour, therefore, to shew, that effects might be produced by the emotion of pleasure, at least equally powerful with those resulting from pain, and incomparably more beneficial to the mind. A being, altogether unacquainted with man, would be not a little astonished to hear, that all the links of human society, except those which bind a very few refined minds, are almost entirely, modifications of pain, even from infancy to old age. Such is the mode by which not only children, but all mankind, have ever been influenced. It is the fear of the tyrant, alone, that renders the people obedient. The influence of this conduct has, in all human affairs, a most pernicious consequence over the heart of man.

'The sensation of pain, when inflicted by a human agent, is accompanied with fear, detestation, hatred, and revenge, and all the variety of passions which degrade human nature. By the continual operation of pain, therefore, such passions are always exercised, rendered stronger, and in time take entire possession of the soul. In all schools and colleges, pupils are terrified into obedience, and the disposition, which they thence acquire, plainly shews the pernicious effect of such treatment. Few children brought up in the common routine of school and college education, are found to possess the finer feelings, in any considerable degree. On the contrary, they are noted for that character and disposition, which has authorized the belief of the degenerate state of mortals. I shall illustrate my opinion by tracing the effects of one mode of excitement very generally employed to promote the exertions of children, and very frequently of men also: I allude to emulation. This modification of pain is used to stimulate children to exertion in a variety of ways; but

but its effect in every form is the same and always hurtful. Emulation, whatever form it may assume, always implies inferiority on one part and superiority on the other; of consequence it is constantly apt to raise in the person to be emulated, contempt and insolence, and in the other, who is to be excited to emulation, it produces fear, sorrow, envy, malignity, and sometimes despair.

'By the habitual exercise of these detestable emotions, the minds of children are entirely perverted, and their dispositions are contaminated by the nature of the emotions by which they are constantly actuated. While these emotions exist, their opposite ones, as esteem, love, respect, benevolence, &c. cannot enter the breast, and in time the bad disposition, induced by the malevolent passions, entirely unfits the mind for entertaining, in any considerable degree, the benevolent ones. The universal custom of using the malevolent passions in exciting and actuating the human mind, has, no doubt, given origin to the opinion that the nature of man is originally bad and malevolent. It must, indeed, ever appear so, while the most effectual means are employed to render human nature truly detestable. By the emotion of pleasure, on the other hand, all the finer feelings of the heart are called forth and strengthened: gratitude, love, respect, esteem, cheerfulness and indeed happiness, flow entirely from the modifications of pleasure. Hence, by properly applying this stimulus to encourage the exertions of children, the mind would, thereby, become ennobled, and that duty which, otherwise, would seem to them a labour would become pleasant and agreeable. The influence of pleasure, in exciting the mind to any exertion, is I am persuaded, not only more conducive to virtue and happiness, but, also, much more powerful than that of pain. Children would much more cheerfully and profitably endure the confinement of a school, were they encouraged by the prospect of some gratification and not terrified by the fear of punishment. To children, the highest enjoyment that can be afforded is liberty to play and amuse themselves; and it is in the power of every person entrusted with the education of children to allow them this pleasure, and to render it the means of promoting their industry, and attention to their studies. Mildness in the teacher is indispensable to the plan of education here laid down. A gloomy, or malevolent disposition in the teacher, must infuse its influence and nature into the minds of the pupils. Under the direction of such an instructor, all the finer feelings of the heart, and all the benevolent dispositions, are curbed and restrained, and the learning acquired in such a situation is acquired with pain, and weariness, and, consequently, attended with disgust. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at, that learning and study *is* so very generally unpleasant, or disgusting to children. We see, from an observation of the prevailing modes of education, that the means used to influence and cultivate the human mind are not at all understood; and that, in consequence, their effects are very frequently prejudicial. We find those entrusted with the education of children chosen out of the most gloomy and ill natured part of the human race, from a persuasion that children can only be terrified into obedience. Hence, if a teacher should happen to be a man of a disposition approaching in any degree towards

mildness, he no sooner enters the school, than he assumes an unusual severity of countenance, and diffuses all around him doubt, suspicion, and terror; and not seldom contempt. Hence, arises, among children, an inconquerable hatred and aversion to their teachers, and consequently to their studies. It is altogether impossible, for children to separate the idea of their master, from that of the duties which he obliges them to undergo; and hence, while the one is disagreeable, the other cannot be pleasant. It seems astonishing that a rational being should ever expect any beneficial consequences to flow, from making children unhappy, or even miserable, yet, that such a belief is almost universally prevalent, appears from an examination of the state of education throughout the world.

'From what we have now advanced, we find, that the emotion of pleasure in its various modifications tends to cultivate and strengthen all the finer feelings of the heart, and to impart a refined and benevolent disposition to the mind; while, on the contrary, the emotion of pain, in all its modifications, exercises and strengthens all the malevolent passions, and corrupts and degenerates the human soul. This truth, alone, must be fully sufficient to induce all intelligent parents, and teachers, never to employ the emotions of pain to influence children but always to use the excitement of pleasure.'

The distinction advanced in the subsequent extract is equally solid and striking, and it is of the utmost practical importance:

'In all the observations, hitherto made, respecting the effects of the emotions of pleasure and pain over the mind of man, it must be always understood that we speak of these emotions, when caused immediately by any human agent. The effects of pain, when arising from the imperfection, and frailty of human nature, and to the perilous situation to which we may here be exposed, *is*, so far from being prejudicial, really beneficial to minds arrived at a *mediocral* degree of strength, and power. In young children, and infants, however, pain, from whatever cause originating, is universally hurtful; for then the mind cannot distinguish the cause from which it arises. Since the mind is actuated only by the emotions of pleasure and pain, the only cause which can sour and corrupt the dispositions of children is painful sensation. This painful sensation, indeed, frequently arises from organic conformation, and is generally incurable by us. Diseased children are always ill natured, by the continual action of pain, which not only excites the malevolent passions, but also prevents the developement, and exercise of the benevolent ones. Instances must occur to every reader, where bodily disease has entirely soured the disposition and corrupted the heart. On those again, whose minds have arrived nearly at maturity, the influence of bodily pain, is, when not too severe, nor too long protracted, almost universally beneficial. The mind, in this case, possesses energies within herself, from the exertion of which she can receive a degree of pleasure sufficient to counteract the influence of moderate pain communicated by the senses.

'Indeed,

'Indeed, in great and energetic minds, the influence of moderate bodily pain tends greatly to call forth and strengthen the powers of the mind, and to encrease the pleasure derived from their exercise, by obliging the mind to relinquish the gratifications of the sense for the more pure and refined delights of the understanding. A moderate degree of sickness, when the mind is strong and mature, is often the best school of wisdom and of virtue. Bodily pain, therefore to minds arrived at maturity, tends greatly, as we have just shewn, to improve the faculties or powers of the mind; nor can it exercise or strengthen the malevolent passions.

'When we are convinced that our indisposition arises from the imperfection of human nature, and not from any human agent, we are apt to sympathize with, and pity the condition of ourselves and fellow men. Nor can the malevolent passions, in this case, be at all exerted, since there is no object on which they can fall. The benevolent passions are, however, exercised in a considerable degree, and particularly those, which incline us to pity and compassion. Every other modification of painful emotion, which depends upon the imperfect nature of man, upon the dangers and evils to which he is constantly exposed, tends also to cultivate the mind and improve the feelings of the heart. The troubles and misfortunes, attendant upon human life, are, for this reason, the source of the highest felicity and happiness. They wean the mind from the meaner enjoyments, which this world affords, and fix her affections on things immutable, on truth, virtue, and immortality.

'Those situations in life exposed to the greatest vicissitude and danger are most favourable for imparting that disposition of mind most conducive to virtue and perfect felicity. From these observations we may conclude, that pain, inflicted by any human agent, tends to pervert the heart, to restrain the exercise of the faculties of the mind, that it is also hurtful to infants and young children, from whatever cause it may originate; and that all the various modifications of pain, which arise from the helpless condition of human nature, and the perils, to which we are ever exposed, tend to soften the heart, cultivate all the finer feelings, and to fit man for the enjoyment of the highest felicity hereafter. From this view of the subject, many important objects of enquiry present themselves.'

A consideration of these extracts will satisfy our readers that, however crude and imperfect these volumes may be as compositions, they contain valuable hints and remarks, which indicate ingenuity and an original turn of thinking. We observe in them also many phrases and terms which British usage does not sanction, as well as some flippant remarks deemed among us unbecoming in grave writings *: but with all the defects of the performance, no one will peruse it without entertaining favourable notions of the intentions as well as of the abilities of its author.

Jo.

* As on the subject of education in religious matters, and in sarcasms on the order of the priesthood.

ART. VI. *Thoughts on Public Trusts.* 12mo. pp. 203. 2s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

ACCORDING to this writer, government is a trust derived from the society over which it presides; the end of it is the benefit of the community; and its functionaries are responsible to the nation, the management of whose concerns is confided to them. We own that we retain our predilection in favour of this old-fashioned doctrine, which has been acknowleged and cherished in the best of times; and we cannot think that the abuse, to which it has been and may be made liable, affords any good reason for discarding it. The author tries the Roman Commonwealth by this test. He censures the fraud practised on the people in the classification by centuries, the ill use of which by the Patricians led to the appointment of Tribunes; and he speaks with approbation of the legislative power which was lodged in the Comitia, and of the law of Licinius, which threw the highest offices open to the Plebeians.

Treating of the Roman Senate, he observes that, when persons were once appointed questors, they obtained seats in the senate for life. He calculates that there might be in later times, in that assembly, about a hundred public officers, such as questors, ediles, and pretors, and about forty persons of consular dignity. At each census, this body was filled up to its usual number of three hundred by the censors, who elected the new members from among the inferior public magistrates.—He states that the office and powers of the conscript fathers were different from those of any modern senate. The Roman senate was vested with the supreme direction of all national affairs, and with an absolute controul over the military force; from this body the consuls, treasurers, and other public officers received their orders and instructions, and it transacted all public business with foreign nations. It had not, however, any power to give detailed instructions, but the executive officers had full liberty to fulfill the orders of the senate in the way which they judged most proper. Its legislative veto was taken off at the time when the comitia by tribes were established.—He farther remarks that the senate of Rome was not sovereign, but was only a select committee of the people, intrusted with the management of the current public business; yet the laws were enacted, taxes imposed, and war determined, by the Roman citizens assembled in *comitia.* The people also appointed the public officers.

This distribution of functions meets the warm approbation of the present writer. That it was wise not to invest the senate with the public patronage may without difficulty be admitted,

mitted, but that it was better lodged in the hands of the people is not to us so clear.—It is justly observed by the author that, after the catastrophes of the Gracchi, there was an end not only of all free but even of civil government. From that time till the establishment of imperial tyranny, the popular assemblies became tumultuous and sanguinary; and those succeeded who had amassed most money, and who could by means of their wealth engage the greatest number of clients. The voters being about 400,000 in number, bribery was impracticable; and the plan adopted was to clear the forum of all opponents by the intervention of a few thousand desperate men. After this period, legislation as well as elections proceeded by force; and the administration of the public business was taken from the senate, and intrusted to the people, among whom violence carried every thing. The decline of the republic from this epoch was rapid, and its complete subversion soon followed.

In a comparison which this writer draws between the constitution of the American States and that of the American Bank, he intimates his opinion that the federal government has been invested with more power than is consistent with the benefit of the subject. The observations in this chapter are, we think, rather ingenious and acute than solid: but our readers shall judge for themselves:

'By the national constitution, the president of Congress holds his office four years, the senators six years, and those members called representatives, two years. All of them are independent of the people during these respective periods. But by the constitution which was formed for the bank, the directors are not only elected annually, but they are liable to be superseded at any time by their constituents, and each director is liable, individually, for every act which he has not protested against, which the members of congress are not.

'Yet notwithstanding these different circumstances, in which these two sets of rulers were placed, which made it incomparably safer to trust the directors with power over the property of the bank, than to trust Congress with power over the persons and property of the nation; yet the American legislators did not think it prudent to allow the directors of the bank any absolute power whatever. They had taken full power to themselves to enact such laws, to impose such taxes, and to create such offices, as they might think proper, without any concurrence of the people; yet they thought it prudent totally to restrain the directors of the bank from enacting any law whatever. The majority of the proprietors of bank-stock have the sole power of enacting laws, the directors are not allowed even a negative; and they are restrained by a particular clause from taking any salary, except what is given by the proprietors, although the sixth section of the first article of the national constitution begins thus: "The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services

to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States."

'As the senators and representatives are the makers of the laws, it would have appeared more candid, if they had openly declared, that they were to take such wages as they themselves might from time to time think proper. This is a power which none of these legislators would allow their own agents or servants. But as they had taken such a liberty with the purse of the nation, it is surprising they were not ashamed to refuse the directors the same liberty with the purse of the bank.

'The difference between the powers which these legislators took to themselves over the property of the nation, and the power which they thought necessary and prudent to trust to the directors over the property of the bank, forms a striking contrast; especially when it is kept in view, that there is sufficient power to compel the bank directors to be answerable for their conduct: But the members of Congress are, collectively, above law, and they had not made themselves answerable individually.

'In forming the national constitution, these legislators seem to have been swayed by prejudices in favour of certain political systems, and by a strong bias for personal power and emoluments: but in forming the constitution for the bank, their judgement seems to have been free from all bias. They gave the directors, therefore, such powers only as they judged necessary for executing the business of the company.'

A few years ago, the ninth chapter of this little volume would have excited considerable attention: but events have put the world altogether out of conceit with constitution-making; and indeed it has proved in its consequences the most fatal mania that ever infested the human race. The chapter in question proposes 'a sketch of a constitution for an extensive populous country, upon the Roman principles;' and the ingenious projector truly observes that 'the terrible evils which have so recently produced by overturning established laws and customs in France, are so fresh in every person's memory, that no danger can be apprehended to the peace of society from submitting a new form of a constitution to examination at this time. Indeed it is not likely that many will take the trouble of reading it.'—The chief novelty in this plan respects the age which it is requisite to attain in order to have a right to vote, and to hold civil offices. This feature of his scheme is thus introduced:

'As there are so many instances of young persons, who, in a few years after their majority, spend their fortunes and ruin their health, from the want of experience, and from the violence of their passions, their own interest being an insufficient check to prevent them; nothing can appear more imprudent than to intrust such persons with the magistracy, or even with the right of voting.

'Would

'Would it not be prudent, and give greater steadiness and respectability to national deliberations, if none were allowed to hold any magistracy, or to vote for any public officer, until they were forty years of age? Such a regulation would very much lessen the number of voters, without injuring the rights of any class, and would put the magistracy, the election and control of public agents, and the judging and voting on laws, into the hands of men, who from having cooler passions, and more experience, are best qualified for such important trusts.

'It has been found by exact registers, that whatever number of men there are in England of twenty-one years of age and upwards, one half of them are under forty; so that if the right of voting were confined to those who were above forty, in countries equally healthful, half of the whole number above twenty-one, and those of the strongest passions and least experience, would be prevented from crowding or disturbing the meetings.'

If this arrangement would exclude mischievous ardour from popular assemblies, it would also deprive them of that which is beneficial. The conqueror of the present times is not yet forty years old, and on this plan he could not give a vote in one of the primary assemblies. Thirty was the age of admission into the Roman senate, an assembly very much and very justly extolled by this writer; and shall not a man be allowed to vote at the age when he might have taken his seat in that grave council? What a number of persons would this provision at once disfranchise, and reduce to political infancy!

The manner of carrying on the elections is thus stated:

'Divide the country into provinces of such extent, that the most populous shall not contain above 1,500,000 souls; and in the least populous, that few of the inhabitants be above 40 miles, or a day's journey, from the place of provincial meetings. Each province to be divided into districts of such extent as that there shall be at least four or five districts in the provinces of the least extent; and in the least populous parts, few of the inhabitants should be above 15 miles from the district meetings, that they may go home in the evening. Lists to be made up of all the men in each province above forty years of age. Every three hundred of these, living most contiguous, to form a ward, and to meet in a church, or some other convenient place, on a certain day annually, to elect two provincial senators, and one warden or judge for the ward. These three officers must be forty years of age, and resident in the ward for which they are elected, or in one that is adjoining. These ward voters also to elect, at the same time, a vice-warden and sixteen jurymen, each forty years old, and resident in the ward.

'The wardens, vice-wardens, and jurymen of every twenty contiguous wards in the nation, to elect out of their respective provincial senators, two men to be national senators; these to continue to be also provincial senators.

'The great national officers to be elected by all the senators, wardens, vice-wardens, and jurymen of the nation annually, the votes to be taken in their respective districts. These men to elect a consul, a vice-consul, and also such a number of generals, admirals, superintendants of the revenue, of the navy, of the ordnance, and, such other national officers as the senate may judge necessary.

'The senators, wardens, vice-wardens and jurymen of each province, to elect annually one of the senators of the province to be governor, also to elect two judges, a public prosecutor, and colonels and majors of militia for the province.

'The senators, wardens, vice-wardens, and jurymen of each district to elect annually one of their senators to be prefect or governor; and also to elect captains, lieutenants, and ensigns of militia for their district.

'In towns of more than one ward, the senators, wardens, vice-wardens and jurymen, to elect one of the senators or wardens to be chief magistrate.

'It is usual to choose the generals of brigades from the colonels, but as the merits of colonels of militia cannot be known to all the magistrates of a nation, it seems to be proper, that the magistrates of two or three adjoining provinces should elect the generals of brigade. This method may also be adopted for electing other public officers whose sphere of action is local, and whose conduct can only be known in the neighbourhood, such as superintendants of public stores, of building ships, &c. Care being always taken that the number of electors be so great as to prevent them from making it a job.'

We have some idea that this work is also the production of an American. (See the preceding article.) It displays great public spirit as well as ability; and, as the rapid extension of wealth and population in the western world may render necessary some alterations in its polity, it is commendable in persons connected with it, who have opportunity and leisure, to direct their attention to subjects of this nature.

Jo.

ART. VII. *Memoir of the Expediency of an Ecclesiastical Establishment for British India*; both as the Means of perpetuating the Christian Religion among our own Countrymen, and as a Foundation for the ultimate Civilization of the Natives. By the Rev. Claudius Buchanan, M.A., one of the Chaplains at the Presidency of Fort William in Bengal, Vice Provost of the College of Fort William, and Professor of Classics in the same; and Member of the Asiatic Society. 4to. pp. 126. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

WE chearfully make our acknowlegements to Professor Buchanan for the present work, which is rendered interesting and instructive by the different statements which it furnishes under the several heads of the progress of the Christian faith in India, the particulars of Indian superstition, the political and religious differences which prevail among the natives,

natives, and the enormities of various kinds which are practised among them under sacred pretences, some of which seem capable of suppression. When, however, we proceed to discuss the expediency of an Indian ecclesiastical establishment, we must confess that most of Mr. Buchanan's arguments only demonstrate the necessity of a farther provision being made for the instruction and edification of the British in India; since we are not aware that he adduces one conclusive argument in favour of the erection of an Easten hierarchy. In the necessity of placing religion among our fellow-subjects in India on an improved footing, we fully concur with this writer: but to argue that adequate means for this end can only be provided by having an archbishop who is to be primate of India, and two or three suffragans, we cannot help regarding as an extravagance even from the Wellesley school. The author complains of the extreme complaisance shewn to the reigning superstitions of British India: but, politically speaking, this is the safest side on which to err. Should the plan which he proposes be realized, an extreme far more hazardous would prevail; an extreme which, we think, would expose our empire to imminent danger. The interference which this establishment would introduce might very soon shake our authority among the bigotted natives. The love of power and the jealousy of hierarchies, and the restricted toleration of which alone (as we have lately seen) they will admit, would render such an institution, at least in a political view, far from eligible in India. While a religion has to *make its way*, we do not think that an hierarchical form is desirable, because it is a form that suits it only where it is dominant. Such an hierarchy as is here proposed would be the most considerable, and therefore would soon become the paramount body of the British councils in the East; and we confess that we can hardly conceive a situation in which predominant ecclesiastical influence is more to be deprecated. It is here complained that there never was a government in which less of any thing ecclesiastical appeared, than in that which is at present exercised by the British in India:—this is a material circumstance, and deserves to be well considered: but we are inclined to believe that it is the circumstance to which we owe our success and security in that country.

While we thus express ourselves on this great question, we have no hesitation in stating our judgment in favour of ample provision for the religious wants of our own subjects in that quarter of the globe. If we do not wholly coincide with a late prelate of great learning and distinguished orthodoxy, who asserted that no attempts ought to be made to disturb the established religions of Heathen or Mohammedan countries, except

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by persons especially commissioned from heaven, and endowed with the power of working miracles, we confess that we should be sorry to see the several civil governments of India, or a hierarchy at Calcutta, employed in schemes of proselytism. We think that the government goes quite far enough if it leaves the field open to individual piety, assisted by the patronage of private societies:—to allow even this may not be unattended with danger: but to controul it would have a strange appearance in a Christian state.

The ensuing statement will shew how our eastern possessions are at present circumstanced with respect to religion:

'1. The present establishment of English chaplains for the British empire in India, is not much greater than the *factorial* establishment in the time of Lord Clive.

'2. There are six military chaplains for Bengal, Bahar, Oude, the Dooab, and Orissa. There are three chaplains in the town of Calcutta, five at the Presidency of Madras, and four at the Presidency of Bombay. Nor is that list ever full. Two thirds of the number is the average for the last ten years.

'3. Some islands in the West Indies have a more regular church establishment, and more extensive Christian advantages than the British empire in the East. Jamaica has eighteen churches; English India has three; one at Calcutta, one at Madras, and one at Bombay.

'4. At the establishment of Bencoolen, at the factory at Canton, at the flourishing settlement of Prince of Wales's Island, at Malacca, at Amboyna, and at the other islands to the eastward now in our possession, there is not a single clergyman of the English church, to perform the rite of Baptism, or to celebrate any other Christian office. The two British armies in Hindoostan, and in the Dekhan, lately in the field, had not one chaplain.

'5. The want of an ecclesiastical establishment has produced a system, not only of extreme irregularity in the discipline of our church, but of positive offence against Christian institution. Marriages, burials, and sometimes baptisms, by the civil magistrate or by a military officer, are not only performed, but are in a manner sanctioned by a precedent of thirty years.'—

'There are three archbishops and seventeen bishops of the Romish church established in the East. The natives naturally suppose that no such dignity belongs to the English church. In Bengal alone there are eight Romish churches; four Armenian churches; and two Greek churches. In confirmation of this statement, an authentic Report of the Roman Catholic establishments is subjoined, which has been transmitted by the Archbishop of Goa.'

It is impossible not to admit the defects in the means of religious instruction here pointed out, nor that there ought to be a due supply of officiating ministers:—but how is this to be effected? Should it not be done by the British residents themselves?

selves? We suppose that the company would not object to their servants engaging a few more clergymen to reside among them; and we do not see any requisition on government to interfere, or that the opinions of the Archbishop of Canterbury or the Bishop of London ought to have any weight in this matter. If our fellow-subjects in that quarter of the globe have not sufficient religious instruction, it is their duty to employ a part of their acquired opulence in furnishing themselves with it. As to the military, it belongs to the Company and the Government to make the necessary provisions.

We quote the author's plan of an Indian religious establishment:

'A regular ecclesiastical establishment for British India may be organized without difficulty. Two bishops might suffice, if India were less remote from Britain: but the inconvenience resulting from sudden demise, and from the long interval of succession from England, renders it necessary that there should be three or more men of episcopal dignity; an archbishop and metropolitan of India, to preside at the seat of the supreme government in Bengal; and one bishop at each of the two subordinate presidencies, Madras and Bombay. These three dioceses should embrace respectively all our continental possessions in the East. To these must be added a bishopric for Ceylon, to comprehend all the adjacent islands, and also New Holland and the islands in the Pacific Ocean. The number of rectors and curates in each diocese must be regulated by the number of military stations, and of towns and islands containing European inhabitants; with an especial attention to this circumstance, that provision may be made for keeping the establishment *full*, without constant reference to England.'

This arrangement would render the government of India almost wholly ecclesiastical, and would be consigning one hundred millions of Heathens and Mussulmans to the controul and management of British clerical councils. We respect the intentions of Professor Buchanan, but we must be permitted to differ from his views in matters of policy and legislation.—It is observed by this writer, referring to India,

'This is the only country in the whole world, civilized or barbarous, where no tenth is paid; where no twentieth, no hundredth, no thousandth part of its revenues is given by government, for the support of the religion of that government; and it is the only instance in the annals of our country where church and state have been dismembered. We seem at present to be trying the question, "Whether religion be necessary for a state;" whether a remote commercial empire having no sign of the Deity, no temple, no type of any thing heavenly, may not yet maintain its Christian purity, and its political strength amidst Pagan superstitions, and a voluptuous and unprincipled people?'

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Do not the returns for the whole usufruct of the land find their way to the treasury? Is it not the more correct opinion that the government are the lords of the whole soil, and the occupiers in all their various degrees only renters? We cannot see in this state of things any consideration which so strongly invites the introduction of tythes. Would the Professor have parochial divisions created through the whole peninsula, a christian clergy planted in them without a christian flock, and Hindoostan made a counterpart to Ireland?

Mr. B. states it by way of reproach that, of all the christian powers who have had a footing in India, *we* have done the least towards establishing our faith in that country:—but, we repeat, may it not be inquired whether we do not owe to the very policy which is here condemned our unparalleled success, and the incredible height of power to which we have reached? If we reverence the principle by which the author is actuated, we cannot help earnestly wishing that he may not succeed in inducing us to depart from the moderation and circumspection, which we have hitherto observed in regard to the delicate matters to which he refers.

The subsequent reasoning is introduced in order to shew that the situation of India is favourable to a scheme of proselyting:

'Natives of all ranks in Hindoostan, at their courts and in their bazars, behold an awful contrast between *their* base and illiberal maxims, and *our* just and generous principles. Of this they discourse to each other, and enquire about the cause, but we *will* not tell them. We are ashamed to confess that these principles flow from our religion. We would indeed rather acknowledge any other source.

'The action of our principles upon them is nevertheless constant; and some aid of religious consideration, on our part, would make it effective. They are a divided people. They have no common interest. There is no such thing as a hierarchy of Brahminical faith in Hindoostan, fixed by certain tenets, and guided by an infallible head. They have no ecclesiastical polity, church government, synods, or assemblies. Some Brahmins are supported by hereditary lands granted to a family or attached to a temple, and pass their time in passive ignorance, without concern about public affairs. Brahmins having no endowment, engage in lay offices, as shopkeepers, moneylenders, clerks, and writers; or in other inferior and servile occupations. Others seek a religious character, and prosecute study at some of the Hindoo schools, of which there are a great number in Hindoostan. These are, in general, supported by the contributions of their students, or by public alms. The chief of these schools are Benares, Nuddeea, and Ougein. Benares has acquired a higher celebrity for general learning than the other schools. But a Brahmin of Nuddeea or of Calcutta, acknowledges no jurisdiction of a Brahmin at Benares, or of any other Brahmin in Hindoostan. The Brahminical system, from Cape Comorin to Tibet, is purely republican, or

father anarchical. The Brahmins of one province often differ in their creed and customs from those in another. Of the chief Brahmins in the college of Fort William, there are few (not being of the same district) who will give the same account of their faith, or refer to the same sacred books. So much do the opinions of some of those now in the college differ, that they will not so much as worship or *eat* with each other. The Brahmins in general cannot *read* their sacred books. Their ignorance of writing and of the geography of the country is such, that there is no general communication among them, political or religious.'

We are also told that

'In no other country is there such a variety of religions, or so little concern about what true religion is, as in British India. A man may worship any thing or nothing. When one native meets another on the road, he seldom expects to find that he is of the same cast with himself. It has been calculated that there are an hundred casts of religion in India. Hence the Hindoo maxims, so grateful to the philosophers, that the Deity is pleased with the variety, and that every religion or no religion is right.'

It were much to be desired that we had sufficient influence to induce the Hindus to relinquish some immoral and inhuman customs which mix with their religious rights. This is a subject extremely worthy of attention, but the attempt would require infinite caution and delicacy.

We have already acknowleged that this tract contains much information with regard to the civil and moral state of India, and on that account well rewards us for its perusal. While, however, it satisfies us that a few more clergymen are wanted in India, in order to dispense the consolations of religion among the British residents, we shall continue to think that the work of proselyting ought to be left to the effects of private zeal combined with the gradual operations of Providence; and we deprecate, as prejudicial to the peace of India and to the security of our empire in that country, the establishment of such a plan as is here proposed.

Jo.

ART. VIII. *An Essay on the best Means of civilizing the Subjects of the British Empire in India,* and of diffusing the Light of the Christian Religion throughout the Eastern World; to which the University of Glasgow adjudged Dr. Buchanan's Prize. By John Mitchell, A. M., Minister of the Gospel, Anderston. 4to. pp. 242. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

IT is stated in an advertisement prefixed to this essay, that the author of the tract reviewed in our last article gave to the University of Glasgow, in 1804, among other sums, one hundred pounds for an English prose dissertation, "on the best means of

of civilizing the subjects of the British Empire in India; and of diffusing the light of the Christian Religion throughout the Eastern World;" and the prize, it appears, was decreed by the learned body in favour of the present performance. If we regard only its composition, the information which it displays, and the liberal sentiments which it breathes, we see no ground for complaining of the adjudication: but if the decision is to be considered as ratifying the plans which the essay proposes, we should find it very difficult to reconcile such a judgment with the wisdom and prudence for which we give credit to that respectable University. We apprehend, however, that a compliance with the terms of the proposition for a premium involves no acquiescence in its doctrines, nor in those of the prize composition.

The subject is in speculation highly curious, and it is besides of the first practical importance. Never was a topic started which required higher general qualifications for its proper discussion: but no man can hope to arrive at very satisfactory results in regard to it, who has not an extensive personal acquaintance with the East. Whether, on the principles of the singular and anomalous government exercised by the British in India, the civilization of the natives would be politic, may perhaps be doubted: but if on this point we feel some hesitation, we are most confident that, under an administration of that country founded on a more enlarged and magnanimous policy, measures for the advancement of the natives would be as conducive to our interest, as unquestionably they are required by a sense of duty. While, however, our councils at home continue to be deranged by cabals the most contemptible, and the nation occupies itself about clamours the most puerile and absurd, little can be expected to be done in regard to these vast and mighty interests, on which our welfare and power so much depend.

Though the maxims of moderation and of a cautious policy are extolled in the pages now before us, and though the writer steers clear of every species of fanaticism, the changes which he advises appear to us to be too considerable, and the course which he would follow to attain them much too precipitate. Our preceding article, and the object proposed by the institution of the prize, will enable the reader to form a judgment of the general aim and scope of this essay: but we shall particularize, for his satisfaction, a few of the matters which are proposed in it.

In describing the requisite qualifications of a Governor-general of India, Mr. M. states that

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'He ought to possess, in an uncommon degree, those enlarged and accurate views of the science of government, of the philosophy of human nature, of national and local peculiarities, which may enable him to avail himself, in the best manner, of men and measures, to break in upon long established usages with the least annoyance, and to new-mould a system most artfully contrived, most closely connected, and upheld by innumerable prejudices, without noise and without violence.'

We are inclined to think that it would be in the highest degree impolitic to attempt such alterations as are here contemplated, even with the skill which is ~~here~~ recommended.

The suggestion made in the following passage we are far from condemning: but we believe that in Leadenhall-street it would be deemed little short of treason:

'Were some of the vacant or thinly-peopled spots of Hindostan occupied by British planters; were suitable encouragement given to sober, peaceful, industrious emigrants, to settle on its fertile plains, which, on equal terms, would doubtless be preferred to the dreary wilds of the new world; were the colonists inured to arms; were an engagement of military service, similar to what the ancient feudal system exacted, to be stipulated as one provision of the tenure, by which they should hold their lands; each of these scattered colonies would prove a kind of open camp, each might repel predatory troops, and each, in succession, by continually interrupting the progress of the more powerful armaments of regular warfare, would prevent them from over-running the country, until a force sufficient to save the empire could be collected. In short, they would act as advanced posts of a great army, spread abroad upon the face of the country, the commander in chief of which would hold his head quarters at the seat of government.'

Another innovation proposed will not be ~~deemed~~ equally offensive:

'It is submitted, whether the seat of government in the Deccan, where the chief danger now lies, and where the bounds of the empire have of late been most enlarged, should not be removed from Madras on the coast, to Seringapatam, a central city, capable of being strongly fortified, and the ancient residence of majesty. An exactly organized system of communication, betwixt the capital and the remote parts of the empire, would contribute also, in a high degree, to the same desirable end. The *lucidus ordo* of detail, the methodised, systematic plan, is as indispensable in the constitution and administration of a government, as in the composition of a discourse. To insure the effect, the observance of unity of design and distribution is not less necessary, in the higher departments of political economy, than in the plot and incidents of a well wrought tragedy.'

This intrepid projector is of opinion that

'A general convention of states, consisting of persons of distinguished authority and influence in each, (suppose the chiefs of the

hereditary rulers,) assembled, from time to time, with the sanction, and under the eye, of the British government, to deliberate about such matters of common concern as may be laid before them, might be productive of various beneficial consequences. It would assist in obliterating appearances of subjugation, which must be ever galling in some degree to the vanquished. It would highly gratify the feelings of the rulers, and the partialities of the people, who, in general, retain a high respect for their native governors. It would cause the latter to appreciate the advantages of union, and give them a stake, in point of gratitude, of honour, and of interest, in the support of that establishment, by which they should be thus embodied. It would attach the hearts of the natives, and secure their submission to the constituted authorities, by giving it the appearance of obedience to their own rulers. It would concentrate the administration of the empire, and give it that compacted form of which it might be susceptible, and which, as we have before suggested, would be highly conducive to its security and interests. And, above all, it would enable the presiding powers to avail themselves of the wisdom of the native princes in forming their plans of reformation, and of a more dignified and perfect co-operation in conducting them to a happy consummation.'

Mr. M. is prepared to confer this civil authority on our Heathen and Mohammedan subjects!—Our boundaries will not permit us to detail the particulars of the dangerous projects of reform which are here communicated, in order to supersede the distinction of casts, and the usage of polygamy.—The manner, however, in which the author states our obligations to advance the useful and elegant arts, among our Indian subjects, shews a highly liberal, benevolent, and manly turn of mind. We think, also, that where *Directorial* influence is not felt, the subjoined proposal will not be deemed unreasonable:

'Provide solicitously against the entrance of disaffected foreigners into the country, or the dissemination of principles of faction and rebellion: secure adequate compensation for the privileges and accommodations conceded to the fair trader; but, having done this, all is done that ought to be attempted: the trade should be left, in other respects, entirely free. Were it thrown open, at least to all the subjects of the mother country, upon condition of their paying an equivalent to the Company, the latter would probably gain more by the increase of territorial revenue and of commercial impost, than by all the advantages which the present monopoly can confer. Confessedly, the Company cannot take off more than a third of the present produce of Hindostan, and why should the other two thirds be lost, by restrictions injurious at once to them, to Britain, and to India? Individuals, it has always been remarked, manage their particular concerns more actively and economically than copartneries; and the observation applies with accumulated force to a commercial association, so extensive, and the grand scene of whose concerns lies so remote,

mote, as that of the East India Company. The market of Hindostan being open to the fair trader at a reasonable rate, no temptation would be held out to that illicit trade, which, in similar circumstances, and there is reason to believe even in this case, has intercepted much of that profit which would otherwise have been reaped by the Company and by the State. By the increased energy, ingenuity, and competition of the Indian manufacturer, the country market would be lowered; and the commodities being sold, in Europe and in Britain, at a cheaper rate, the demand would be augmented: two objects, which it is the aim of political economy to unite, and which, were they gained, by dismissing speculation would render the trade both more securely gainful to the merchant, and more extensively beneficial to the public. Grateful, too, for the generosity of their new masters, easy and happy under a benign administration, raised in the scale of nations by an enlightened and liberal policy, the Hindoos would rally around the English government, and, cordially attached to the new order of things, would form their own barrier; so that the present expensive armaments, naval and military, which are necessary to the security of the empire, would become, in a great measure, superfluous.'

The following scheme for advancing Indian civilization merits the most serious attention:

'At this moment a seminary for teaching our countrymen, in Britain, the knowledge of the spoken languages of Hindostan, with accounts and mathematics, is projected; and, if carried into effect, may contribute in some degree to the diffusion of science. But to erect and endow schools and academies, in suitable places throughout our eastern possessions, to which able teachers, natives or Europeans, may be appointed, and by which the knowledge of the arts and sciences may become accessible to all our eastern subjects, is an expedient, more direct and efficient, which will readily suggest itself to every one on first consideration. How these seminaries are to be supported, whether by the contributions of the students, or the aids of the state, or by both together; and, if the interposition of the second be necessary, whether the Braminical colleges might not be so occupied, and their ample revenues transferred altogether, or at least in part, to the support of this more important national object, —are questions, which cannot be decided without a minute knowledge of circumstances local and political, and of which the determination must rest with the wisdom of the governors. Since the lands of the priests are not only entailed upon the order, and considered as sacred by the people, but exempted from taxation; it is probable any attempt to alienate or assess them, would, at least for a time, be highly obnoxious, if not greatly hazardous. In addition to these institutions, endowed as may seem most expedient, much aid may be derived from the art of printing. Every one knows how much the press has contributed, in latter ages, to the improvement of Europe, and the illumination of the world. Let then small British tracts, especially those that indicate the state of society in Europe, in its most pleasing and instructive views, be published in the native lan-

guages. Or, to encourage the study of the English, and thus, the more effectually to incorporate the natives with their rulers, these treatises may be retained in their original dress. By these means, besides diffusing useful information, such a habit of reading and reflection may be created, as will contribute to relieve the languors of life, to stir up the mental indolence of the Hindoos, and engage them to concur in the salutary views of government. This is no new scheme. It has been already tried. The annals of Hindostan present us with an illustrious precedent. Akber, one of the best emperors that ever sat on the throne of the East, ordered his Vizier, Abul Fazel, to translate into a familiar style the Hœtopades, or Amicable Instructor, (a book of great celebrity) that his subjects might be improved by the lessons on science and on ethics which it contained.'

We now arrive at the part of the essay in which the subject coincides with that which is treated by the reverend and learned founder of the prize; and we are happy in observing that the views of the Essayist are more reasonable and practicable than those of the Memorialist. Mr. Mitchell gives no countenance to the introduction of an overbearing hierarchy, but recommends a course directly opposite. He invites all parties to co-operate in the conversion of the Hindoos; and he applauds the commendable and successful efforts of an European sect in this cause, the Baptists, of which the Professor takes no notice. The more wise and enlightened essayist dreads an over-forward and officious interference on the part of the civil government; and he proposes a mode which is the very reverse of a civil religious establishment. He wishes that

'A common council of the friends of Christianity, a grand evangelical society, should be formed, which, while it would not exclude but invite the assistance of other societies abroad who are employed in the same general cause, might have the Indian missions under its particular superintendance. That this society should be numerous, is not necessary: and indeed it may be feared, that many eligible persons, resident in India, might not easily be found. A few will promise more cordial union, and will be sufficient to watch over the execution of the plans. Let them be such as choose voluntarily to associate for this purpose, and contribute their counsels and labours gratis, that malevolence may not have cause to throw any imputation upon the liberality of their motives. Let them be men, whose characters will be a security, to government and the country, for the rectitude of their measures; and whose exemplary goodness may reflect lustre on the undertaking. Let them be united in sentiment and spirit,—in the faith, and hope, and practice, of the Gospel. Let them meet, if possible, in some central situation, and be intrusted (under a suitable responsibility) with the application of the funds devoted to this noble purpose. And let it be determined, that they shall regulate the religious concerns of the mission, uncontrolled by aught except the sacred prescriptions of the word of God, the enlightened

lightened dictates of their own minds, and the sense of that important duty they owe to God,—their country,—and the human race. Theirs be the glorious, but duly-limited task, not of encroaching upon the rights of conscience, not of interfering with powers strictly ecclesiastical, not of exercising civil authority; but of creating funds and watching over their expenditure; of arranging plans, of selecting proper persons, of suggesting to them their stations and labours, of providing accommodations, of extending protection, of opening facilities for missionary exertion, &c. Above all, it is of the highest importance that this should appear to be a truly Christian association.'—

'Liberal, though well principled, will be that association, whose character we have been delineating, whose powers we have been attempting to define. Far from them be the spirit of a jealous and exclusive corporation,—of a selfish monopoly. The harvest is great while the labourers must of necessity be comparatively few. Sufficiently ample is the sphere of action for every evangelical auxiliary; nor, if matters are judiciously arranged, can there be any hazard of their interfering with one another. The cause is common to all Christians; and the success of each, while it does not lessen the triumphs of another, will enhance the joy of all who are actuated by the temper and views of our benevolent religion. Nothing but prejudice the most illiberal, or an arrangement the most injudicious, can prevent this primary association from availing themselves of the labours of other societies or individuals, who, corresponding in their views of the religion of Jesus, may be already embarked, or may be disposed yet to engage, in this holy and benevolent enterprise. For cordial co-operation, as well as ultimate success, a coincidence of religious sentiment, feeling, and views, is necessary. The disputes betwixt the Jesuits on the one side, and the Dominicans and Franciscans on the other, occasioned the expulsion of both from China, after they had made considerable progress in proselyting the natives, and attained high favour with the court. And, for the security of the government, as well as the dignity of the mission, persons whose characters, principles, and abilities, are not sufficiently accredited, ought to be accounted inadmissible. But, with these limitations, all who are "willing to give themselves to the Lord" in this field of honourable and useful activity, should be heartily welcomed. This Christian union will be productive of many obvious advantages. A certain holy emulation will thus be excited, and the different societies and labourers "will provoke one another to love and to good works." The expences, being shared by others, and drawn in part from foreign sources, will be lessened to the chief institution. Consistency of plan, harmony of operation, will thus be secured: and, while the attempt is carried on systematically and jointly, it is likely to prove more efficient, than if it had been conducted only by one society, or by several societies without any concurrence of views or correspondence of exertion. Already in Hindostan there are missionaries from the Society in England for propagating Christian knowledge, from the Association for the conversion of the Heathens more recently formed in the capital of the empire, from the

Danes, and above all from the Particular Baptists, whose humble and unostentatious, but active and well-directed labours, seem to have occasioned a mighty sensation among the subjects of the British empire in the North. Let none of these who may prove himself, by his principles and conduct, worthy of the privilege, be excluded from the work, or forgotten in laying the scheme of the grand project, by which it may henceforth be conducted on a scale somewhat suitable to its own magnificence.'

Mr. M. very properly intimates that a civil establishment is not to be contemplated till the bulk of the people shall have been converted:

'When,' he says, 'the great mass of the people shall have been detached from their present superstitions, and enlightened in the principles of the Christian faith; when the spirit of religious inquiry shall have become general, and a considerable body of the natives shall have embraced the new religion, then other measures may be adopted for carrying on and consummating the blessed work of this holy revolution. The rest of the seventh day may be enjoined by public authority, so that at length "the land may enjoy her Sabbaths." Either at the expence of government, or by the voluntary contributions of the converts to Christianity, churches may be erected every where, according to a regular and approved plan, for the conveniency of social worship. The stated dispensation of public ordinances may be instituted; and the congregations of the faithful organized and affiliated upon the scriptural model. Thus, as in primitive times, the whole body of the disciples of Jesus in India, will, by degrees, assume the appearance of a grand, religious association; and the magnificence of the result will correspond to the benevolence of the project.'

On this passage, Mr. Mitchell has given the following note:

'The author is not ashamed to avow himself a presbyterian; and he conceives, that much might be said to recommend the system he has espoused to the adoption of Christians; and he must wish to see it prevail. At the same time he respects the convictions of others —the institution of church-government, though very important in itself, must, in the arrangements for establishing Christianity in any country, be subsequent (as is supposed in the text) to the dispensation of the Gospel there,—and, while it is the duty of the ministers of the Word to teach and to inculcate authoritatively all the doctrines and all the laws of Jesus Christ, while it is incumbent upon all to co-operate in framing the church upon the evangelical model, it is also the privilege of the people, and in the case before us, of the converts to Christianity, to select (under a high responsibility to their great Master) that form of church order which shall appear to them most agreeable to the Scriptures.'

It is impossible not to applaud the manliness, liberality, and good sense of this writer. If we are to wait, as is here (we think) properly intimated, till 'the great mass of the people shall

shall have been detached from their present superstitions,' we conjecture that none who are now in existence will be perplexed by the important deliberation, whether the plan of the Calcutta professor, or that of the present author, is to be adopted;—whether the religious establishment of India is to resemble that of the Southern or the Northern part of our island;—whether it is to be presbyterian or episcopalian;—or whether a new established religion may not erect its front in the East, under the auspices of those who are the most early and active in the work of conversion. Possessing a large portion of each of the three nations which form the United Kingdom, divided besides into numerous sects, and having millions of Heathen and Mohammedan subjects, is this a country in which rulers should inculcate bigotry, and inflame religious differences? Never did an empire exist in which liberal and enlarged views on these subjects were so indispensible in magistrates.

Protesting peremptorily against the schemes of Professor Buchanan's memoir, we pay a willing tribute to the more discreet and more liberal plans of proselyting suggested in the present essay; for while we desire not less ardently than that zealous and able author, the diffusion of our benign religion, *our* zeal does not carry us to the length of overlooking times, and seasons, and circumstances, even in this most laudable of undertakings. How far government shall institute and sanction measures for this great and good design is a matter for most grave deliberation, to be decided with extreme caution and circumspection; and in order to judge to what extent we may safely proceed, it is requisite to possess deep political science, long experience in public affairs, and an intimate acquaintance with the country and its inhabitants.

Jo.

ART. IX. *The Stranger in America,* &c. &c. By Charles William Janson, Esq., late of the State of Rhode Island, Counsellor at Law. 4to. pp. 509. and Twelve Engravings. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cundee. 1807.

"I was a stranger, and they took me in," says Mr. Janson of the Americans. By way of having his revenge, in his delineation of the country and people of the New World, he assiduously labours to prevent his readers, whether they remain at home or are disposed to emigrate, from being strangers to America, and subject to the same delusion by which he suffered. This undertaking seems very public-spirited: but, as zeal is sometimes tempted to exceed the bounds of impartiality, it is necessary for us to be on our guard, lest we in our turn be "taken in," and have the same trick *played off* on us,

of which the author himself complains. Indeed, persons who have been hurt or disappointed are apt to yield to their feelings, and, in spite of themselves, to transfuse a tinge of bile over their history.

We believe, however, that Mr. Janson means to be as accurate as he has certainly been indefatigable, and we perceive no reason for questioning the general fidelity of his narrative. He professes to notice whatever he deems worthy of observation; "to paint the manners living as they rise;" and to speak the truth without malice, as well as without extenuation. So far he is intitled to our attention; and when we are informed that he spent more than thirteen years in the United States, he cannot be regarded in the light of a cursory stranger, who picks up information as one of Astley's riders recovers his whip from the ground, at full speed, and who might have passed *through* America and yet have remained in a great measure a stranger *to* America. Mr. J. is not of this description. Abundant time was employed by him in observation; and the materials which he has collected will prove that he was not an idle nor an unreflecting spectator. He is perhaps correct in stating that the country which he explored is 'uncongenial to English habits, and to the tone of an Englishman's constitution:' but we are reluctant in admitting that 'there is a rooted aversion in the hearts of the Americans against the inhabitants of Britain.' An English *gentleman*'s habits are, we are ready to allow, ill suited to the roughness and inurbanity of republican manners; and it is not improbable that the behaviour of the author might have appeared proud and haughty among democratic settlers and merchants. Certain it is that a mutual disgust was excited; and if the Americans were deficient in civilities to him, he has amply repaid them in their own coin. Though he failed in his land speculation, and in his mercantile project, we may promise him success as an author; and we hope that, while his pages afford a caution to the European, the American will learn to mend his manners from the wholesome chastisement which they occasionally bestow. By trans-atlantic readers, however, Mr. J. will be reckoned a disappointed man, and many parts of his book will be condemned as merely calculated for the meridian of England: but, if it be not written in the dispassionate style of the philosophic traveller, it contains a mass of valuable information, and presents such a view of the United States as the philosopher, who knows how to winnow the chaff from the wheat, will not be displeased to obtain.

This volume is truly miscellaneous. It contains an account of the soil, climate, and inhabitants; it describes the town

and country life of the Americans, noticing their habits, vices, amusements, and foibles; it includes history, biography, and details of the three kingdoms of nature; it presents sketches of the legislation, police, religion, literature, and state of the Arts in the New World, &c.; and should Mr. Janson meet with that success which we are inclined to believe he will experience, he promises to give us farther particulars. The form of a journal is not adopted: but the results of the author's peregrinations are collected according to their subject in distinct chapters. That he is not a superficial observer, his view of the extent, population, &c. of the United States will manifest: but we must omit his laborious *Statistical Table*, for which our page will not allow room:

'The United States, according to an American geographer, are estimated to comprise upwards of a million square miles, or six hundred and forty million acres of land, exclusive of the lakes and other large waters of that country. This estimate was made previous to the purchase of Louisiana, the extent of which has never been accurately defined. Already a region too extensive to be subject to one general government, the people of the northern and southern states differing as much in manners as in climate, they have, by this acquisition, added an extent of territory nearly equal in magnitude to the federal states. Since the peace of 1782, this country has been extending its limits on the frontiers by purchase, and treaties with the different tribes of Indians. The thirteen states are already swelled into sixteen, and the territories of Mississippi and Indiana, each sending a delegate to congress, will doubtless very soon be added to the number. The province of Maine, in the north, has also long looked forward to become an independent state; and when Louisiana is incorporated with the union, it is not improbable that we may find twenty-six united states of America for some short time recorded in history.

'The present population of this extensive country justifies the assertion, that many centuries must elapse before the whole is under cultivation. In the year 1791, a census was taken by order of government; when the inhabitants were found to be in number 3,929,326

In 1801, by another census then taken, there were 5,305,638

Making an increase in ten years of - - 1,376,312

'According to this average, exclusive of the great increase of population by emigrations from Europe since the year 1801, there must be, exclusive of Louisiana, 6,337,072 souls, under the federal government. If the whole of this country were under improvement, it would require, allowing forty acres of land to each, sixteen millions of families; and, estimating such families at five persons, it would support eighty millions of souls. In this way it has been calculated in America, that to people the whole territories belonging to the United States, including Louisiana and the Floridas, it would require three hundred and twenty millions. It likewise appears, that

were the population of this immensely extended republic proportioned only to that of Great Britain, instead of five or six millions, it ought to contain two hundred and thirty-nine millions of inhabitants.

'Notwithstanding this vast disproportion between the population and the territory of the United States, the Americans are still farther extending their limits Considering the opposite interests of the northern and southern states, it is surprising that the federal constitution has so long maintained itself, and triumphed over contending parties. Some of the best informed men are, however, of opinion, that the compact will not hold much longer, and that the next election of a president will sever the states, and leave New York or Pennsylvania the boundary between them. The northern states are firm federalists; that is, of Washington's system: in the south, they are violent democrats, bawlers for liberty in the very midst of slavery. The latter have twice elected Mr. Jefferson as president; and it is conjectured that, should the federals fail in their majority at the next election, it will be the *tocsin* of disunion.'

To the climate of America, which experiences the extreme of degrees of heat and cold, the author particularly objects; and if we decide on this head by the rule of our voluptuous monarch Charles II. viz. "that *that* country is the best to live in, in which a man may be most days of the year and most hours of the day in the open air," England is decidedly preferable to any State of the Union.—Of the Province of Maine, now subject to the State of Massachusets, the author affords a favourable picture: but even here the climate is not on the whole inviting:

'It is, at this time, a flourishing country, abounding with the best timber, of which large quantities are exported to the British dominions. The climate, however, like almost every other part of the United States, is unfavorable to the English constitution. To strangers, the heat in the summer is almost insupportable, while the severity of winter is scarcely to be endured. The spring and autumn are, certainly, delightful; the month of November, which is proverbially fatal to Englishmen, is, in America, one of the most delightful in the year. The sun has then declined to such a point, that his rays diffuse a most comfortable temperature, the frosts of winter being no farther advanced than to act as a bracer to the relaxed constitution. In this month, I could, without the least inconvenience, pass the whole day, from morning until sun-set, either in the active sports of the field, or seated upon the rocks, angling for the various species of fish, with which the coast of New England abounds.'

The extent and productions of this district are particularly described:

'The growing importance of Maine will soon produce a political separation from Massachusets; when it will, in all probability, raise itself to the rank of an independent state. It is three hundred miles long, and two hundred and four miles in breadth, lying between 43 and

and 46 degrees, north latitude, and extending to the British dominions. The climate is healthy to the natives, but subject to extremes of heat and cold. The inhabitants often live to a great age. The land produces Indian corn, rye, barley, oats, pease, beans, potatoes in astonishing quantities; and of fruit, apples, pears, plumbs, peaches, cherries, &c. The butter made here is said to excel that of every other part of New England, owing to the sweetness of the grass. This is a wonderful country for timber, abounding in stately and extensive forests, and the lumber trade is consequently very lucrative. The numerous rivers afford abundance of salmon, and the sea coast furnishes such quantities of cod, that their fisheries are very extensive and profitable. The country produces deer of various kinds, beavers, otters, sables, bears, wolves, rabbits, mountain-cats, porcupines, and other animals. The sportsman may find sufficient amusement among the partridges, squirrels, and an infinite variety of water fowl. There are no venomous serpents to the eastward of Kennebeck river. The people, as in every other part of New England, are very inquisitive to strangers.

'The principal town in the province of Maine, is Portland It has grown into consequence within a few years; being till 1786, a part of Falmouth. The town of Portland is beautifully situated on a neck of land, at high water nearly insulated by the sea, which renders it healthy and pleasant. I have not met with a more agreeable place in America, and have ever thought this town claimed a preference, in many respects, to all others which I have visited on this vast continent. The harbour is always open, very commodious, and the trade and inhabitants rapidly encreasing. A spirit of enterprise and industry prevails in Portland, which cannot fail, with its natural advantages, to render it a populous and wealthy place.'

Nature is known to exhibit her usual features on a grand scale, on the continent of America; and the traveller must unavoidably be struck with the magnitude of her lakes and mountains. Mr. J. notices Lakes Superior and Huron as the largest bodies of fresh water in the world; and in speaking of the Straits which connect the American Lakes, he mentions a very singular circumstance. 'It is remarkable that although there is no diurnal flood or ebb to be perceived in the waters of these streights, yet from an exact attention to their state, a periodical alteration has been discovered. It has been observed that they rise by gradual, but imperceptible degrees, till in seven years and a half they have reached the height of about three feet; and in the same space of time they gradually fall away to their former state, so that in fifteen years they complete this inexplicable revolution.'

Whenever the author adverts to the state of religion in America, he places it in no favourable point of view; and he particularly reports that it is at a very low ebb in the Carolinas. 'At Charleston (says he) they make some shew of religion on the sabbath, but, perhaps, with as little devotion as in the other

parts

parts of the state. Of Georgia, I cannot, from my own observation, say much; but there is every reason to believe that, with respect to religion, it is nearly on a par with the Carolinas; *gouging* being in equal vogue in the four southern states.' In a subsequent page, he informs us that the marriage ceremony is performed by the justice of the peace, 'who *hiccups* over a few lines;' and that 'the baptism and burial services are dispensed with.' In other places, however, we read of the ridiculous strictness with which the sabbath is observed; 'the ranting methodists have their Lord's Anointed;' and though there be no particular Establishment in America, and of course no privileged clergy, he disputes Dr. Currie's assertion, which is strictly correct, "that there are no ecclesiatical orders in that country." To ridicule the Baptists, he tells the following idle story:

'A spectator declared, that one of his relations, an elderly man, had suddenly become a frequenter of the Baptist meetings, and offered himself a candidate for a place among the elect. The penance necessary to endure is severe, and the probation arduous, before the repentant sinner can pass the ordeal of the ministers and elders. The old man had, it seems, obtained the blessed sanction, and a distant day was appointed for his regeneration by baptism. Upon reflection, finding that it would happen in the greatest severity of winter, at the next meeting he petitioned that the ceremony might take place in warmer weather; alledging, that it would certainly prove his death to be put under water in time of frost and snow. The congregation murmured, while the priest, without a reply, read his sentence of excommunication, with the most severe anathemas on his head as an unbeliever, possessing neither faith nor the holy spirit; and never could he recover the effects of his indiscretion, or be again admitted into the number of the elect.'

Among the anecdotes of the American war, the history of the amiable Lady Harriet Acland is detailed in an affecting manner: but this has been frequently presented to the British reader.

At Philadelphia, Mr. Janson appears to have passed a considerable time; and of this city we have not only an ample description, but also a plan, and several views. It is stated to be well built, and to contain nearly 80,000 inhabitants; which amount, notwithstanding the ravages of the *yellow fever**, is

* The author experienced this malady, and he thus describes its effects:

'The yellow fever was then raging, and I was at that moment under its baleful influence. To describe the misery of the sufferer afflicted with this horrible disease, is impossible. The symptoms by which

is double the extent of its population at the declaration of independence. Of its market, which is the boast of the Philadelphians, we shall insert Mr. J.'s account:

'It is a covered building, 420 of my steps, in length, exclusive of the intersections of streets, and I calculated my step to be a yard; but only five (qu. *fifteen*) feet in breadth, including the butchers' benches and blocks. It is well supplied; and its regularity and cleanliness indicate good living and wholesome regulations. No article can be offered for sale here without first being submitted to the inspection of one of the clerks of the market, who seizes unwholesome articles, and a fine is inflicted upon the owner. The fish-market, from its distance to the sea, is but indifferently supplied, though much pains is taken to procure a regular supply. Light carts are constantly coming in from New York, and Burlington in New Jersey, with the most deli-

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which I was attacked were sudden. I had supped with an appetite, slept as well as the heat would permit, and was rising at my usual time in the morning, when I felt a most singular sensation, accompanied by a chill. I lay down again, and soon felt a nausea at my stomach, which produced vomiting of bile, in color and quantity which astonished me. This relieved me so much, that I ascribed the cause of my sickness to a foul stomach, and had dressed myself before I perceived new symptoms. A lassitude hung about me, and was accompanied with a depression of my faculties, an acute pain at the back of the head, and an aching through my limbs. Medical assistance was now procured, but on the third day I felt so weary that I could not remain a minute in the same posture; a sensation not to be described—worse to be endured than acute pain, and more irksome than the smart of a festering wound. During this time the fever had made great progress, and the thirst it occasioned could not be appeased, though I drank large quantities of the juice of limes, with water, which was permitted by my physician. My stomach, however, soon refused the grateful beverage; the vomiting continued often so long, and with such violence, that I was exhausted, and found a temporary relief in the deprivation of my mental faculties In this state I suffered several days, the greatest part of which I was insensible of my situation, and the intervals of reason were horrible. My bones felt as if they were disjointed; a burning pain was seated in the spine, while the throbbing and tormenting sensation in my head drove me again into a state of delirium. The treatment of my physician was judicious; by his aid, and that of a good constitution, I struggled through the dreadful disorder. I was copiously bled in the first instance, and blisters were applied to my legs, my feet, and the back of my neck. This regimen, with the good effect produced by strong doses of calomel, and afterwards of bark, effected my cure. During this severe trial, in my intervals of reason I readily complied with the prescriptions of my doctor, and the directions of my black nurse: but was informed, that in my delirium I was most refractory, and evinced great bodily strength in attempting to escape from the chamber—a common symptom in the yellow fever.'

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cate fish of the ocean, and packed in ice during the summer. The beef is good, but the mutton and veal far inferior to that of England and Ireland. Butter and poultry are excellent; and there is a profusion of vegetables. Butchers' meat, on an average, is ten to twelve cents (5d. to 6d.) per pound; but poultry is not one-third of the London price, and of a superior quality. Fowls of all kinds are within the compass of the purchase of the labourer. A turkey of sixteen pounds weight may often be bought in Philadelphia for a dollar, but I have seen them sold of this size, both in New England and in Virginia, for three shillings, and even still less, British money. Wild turkies are sometimes brought to market of the enormous weight of twenty-five pounds and upwards; but these birds retire from the country as it becomes more settled. Geese, ducks, fowls, rabbits, (there are no hares in the United States) are of a proportionate price. Quails, which they call partridges, are brought alive in large quantities, and sold for about two and sixpence per dozen. Negroes, and sometimes white people, bring opossums, which could not readily be distinguished from roast pig, when dressed in the same manner; squirrels, which are by many preferred to the rabbit, and sometimes racoons. The latter I never could be prevailed upon to taste; indeed, it is not held in any estimation, partaking too much of the species of the fox, though, I believe it is not carnivorous. Excellent butter is supplied by the German settlers, at about an English shilling per pound, and eggs at sixpence per dozen. The pork throughout the United States is excellent, and, from the quantity of mast, it is raised in abundance. Large herds of swine, which ran off at my approach, have often suddenly surprised me when on a shooting party in the woods. They range at large, and stray sometimes many miles from their owner, who, however, is anxious to accustom them to resort to his plantation. To effect this, he blows the conch-shell, which may be heard at a great distance. At this signal the hogs that are well trained set off at full speed; and, from its being sounded at one particular spot, the animals soon appear, and are rewarded with Indian-corn, which they prefer to all other food. About the end of November begins the pork season. Neighbouring planters and farmers unite, and form a large party in quest of the herds of swine, that are entirely wild, which they pursue and shoot with a single ball in the head. Each person knows his hogs by marks which are given them when young. This pork, by the quantity, is generally in price from five to six dollars per hundred weight. It is very fat, but the flesh is not firm, from the animal feeding chiefly upon the acorn; this they call mast fed pork.'

With this large provision for the body, Philadelphia enjoys also abundant literary food. The library and museum are on respectable foundations.

If on some subjects the Americans may profit by the example of the mother-country, on others the parent may learn from her children. In the article of Criminal Punishments, the conduct of the American Government is highly judicious, and merits universal adoption. It is a common complaint with

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us that convicts are rendered worse by confinement; and that, when they are returned to society, they are incapable of any lawful pursuit. The American method obviates both of these evils.—We observe, also, with pleasure, that capital punishments are rarely inflicted:

'Though both the penal and common laws of England are generally adopted in the United States, the punishments differ materially; but it will be admitted that they are sufficiently proportioned to the crimes. In very few cases indeed, in any state, is the punishment of death inflicted. Legislative bodies consider, that the laws of man should seldom extend to the extermination of that life which was given by the Almighty! In Pennsylvania, of late years, capital punishments are remitted in all cases I believe except treason, or murder in the first degree; and, in the latter case, death is seldom inflicted; but the culprit is sentenced to solitary confinement in a dark cell for a number of years, or perhaps for life. In the second degree, light is admitted into the cell of the prisoner, and his confinement is limited to seven or fourteen years. For burglary, which rarely occurs, the punishment is also solitary confinement. Such as are under conviction of theft and petty larceny are made to work in their cells, at the trade to which they were bred. Prisoners for inferior misdemeanors, midnight disturbers, vagabonds, and such as are detected begging or fighting, are kept at labour together.'—

'It is curious and pleasing to see and reflect upon the various useful occupations these people, hitherto dangerous to society, are obliged to follow in the prisons of America. Manufactures of most kinds are there carried on. Taylors, shoe-makers, and persons of other trades, have separate rooms; and such of the prisoners who have not followed any useful branch in particular, are instructed to make nails by machines, of which large quantities are constantly manufacturing. The produce not only maintains the labourers, but leaves a considerable profit to the state. Thus, prisoners who are a great expence to the English nation, living in idleness, and plotting and teaching each other mischief, and new methods and devices for plundering the public, are there rendered valuable members of society. The punishment, so far from hardening them in turpitude, reforms them, and they generally, on their liberation, return to those habits of industry which, from compulsion, have become second nature. The task assigned them is so moderate, that each individual can with ease earn a daily surplus; and in this case, an account is taken of it, and it is delivered in cash to the respective claimants on liberation. Thus, the most industrious often accumulate a sufficiency to enable them once more to begin an honest business.'

We need not swell our page with remarks on this instructive passage. What a lesson is it to Great Britain!

The traveller's account of his visit to the city of Washington affords no high idea of the flourishing state of this seat of the Government. He represents that the buildings are at a stand; and that spaces marked out for its streets are now so much in their

native wildness, 'that quails are often shot within a hundred yards of the capitol;' yet he afterward tells us 'that the very dregs of prostitution appear to have been emptied into the federal city,' which is a circumstance indicative of a large population.

The great tracts of country to the west, over which the Americans are extending themselves, do not escape the observation of this intelligent traveller. Of that immense district which is watered by the Missouri, a description is here given, with an account of the expedition appointed to explore it. We can copy only a part of the detail:

'The banks of the Missouri are alternately woods and *prairies*, (meadows) and *they* seem to encrease annually from the fires which are kindled every autumn, by the savages, or white hunters, either by chance, or with a design of facilitating their hunting. The water is muddy, and contains a fine sand, which soon precipitates; but this circumstance takes nothing from its salubrity. Its course is generally west by north west.

'The flats are covered with trees of an enormous size. Out of the trunk of one sycamore tree a canoe has been made, able to carry eighteen thousand pounds weight. The poplar and the maple are also found here in abundance, as well as the wild cherry, the red and white elm, the linden tree, the Indian chesnut, the water willow, the white and red mulberry. On the shores of the Missouri are found, in abundance, the white and black oak for ship-building—the pine, the cedar, and the triacanthos, which, like the English quick-thorn, forms impenetrable hedges.

'The plants are still more numerous. The Indians are well acquainted with the virtues of many of them. They make use of them to heal their wounds, and to poison their arrows. They have one, which is said to be a certain and prompt cure for the venereal disease; —another, which renders them for a few moments insensible to the heat of fire. By using it, they will seize a red hot iron, or a burning coal, without injury. With different woods they dye their garments of beautiful colours.

'The lands on the Missouri are capable of yielding all the productions of the temperate, and even some of those of the warm climates—wheat, maize, and every other species of grain and esculent roots. Hemp seems here to be indigenous; even cotton succeeds, though not so well as in more southerly countries; its culture, however, yields a real advantage to the inhabitants, who find in the crop of a field of two acres, a harvest sufficient for the cloathing of their families.

'The *prairies* afford excellent pasture. Different kinds of clay are found here, among which it is believed, is the real *kaolin*, to which the porcelain of China owes its reputation. Numberless caves on the river, abound in salt-petre.

'The stones are generally calcareous and grit. There is one peculiar to the banks of this river. It is of a blood red color, compact, and soft under the chissel, but it becomes hard in the air, and is susceptible

ceptible of a most beautiful polish. The Indians make use of it for calumets; but, from the extent of its layers, it might be employed for more important purposes. They have also quarries of marble, streaked with red; and a species of plaister, similar to that which the Americans bring in large quantities from the British dominions on the river St. Croix. Volcanic stones are likewise found in the Missouri country, which clearly denote the ancient existence of volcanoes, though none were heard of by the exploring party.

'Mines of lead, iron, and coal have already been discovered on the borders of the Missouri; and there are, no doubt, some of tin, copper, silver, and even of gold, according to the accounts of the Indians, who have found some particles of these metals.'

Mr. Janson presents us with strictures on the Law, the Drama, on Printing, on Land-Jobbing, the Mode of clearing Land, and stocking a Farm, &c. in America. He endeavours to ridicule the American Elections: but if a Columbian, after having visited this country, were to write the *Stranger in England*, we fear that he would find more occasion for exercising his talents on us respecting the subject of Elections, than an English traveller could discover on the other side of the Atlantic.

No writer can express himself more energetically against the Slave Trade than Mr. Janson; and he adverts to its political influence as a circumstance which deserves the notice of the Americans:

'In this boasted land of freedom there are, according to calculation, nearly one million slaves for life; besides some thousand European emigrants, sold for a certain term of years, to defray the expence of bringing them across the Atlantic. After what has been already said on this subject, the reader will be yet more surprised when he learns that this unfortunate race of men are actually represented in congress, being enumerated with the white men in a certain ratio. Thus Virginia, with 40,160 *free* people *less* than Massachusets, sends five representatives, and five electors for a president and a vice president, *more* than Massachusets; and this great influence arises from the *enumeration of the slaves* in Virginia, while Massachusets admits *no kind of slavery*.'

In the advice to Emigrants, the Artist is cautioned against the indulgence of golden visions on the American shore; and the reason on which this caution is founded is just. 'In a country presenting agriculture and trade in their most advantageous points of view, there is still less encouragement for the arts and sciences. Few individuals have yet amassed a fortune sufficient to enable them to indulge in elegant luxuries, and where that may have occurred, the possessor of mean origin remains still sordid, or is devoid of taste. Except the public buildings, there is little employment for the artizan.'

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An Appendix contains abstracts of a Report on the American Roads, and of a Report from the Secretary of the Treasury on the Revenue and Expenditure of the United States. Their public expences for 1805 were

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'Civil List, including the civil expences of the territory of New Orleans	611,911	50
Miscellaneous expences	310,982	31
Intercourse with foreign nations	26,550	
Military establishment	942,992	48
Naval establishment, including 71,340 dollars, 76 cents, as an appropriation for the crew of the frigate Philadelphia	1,240,445	2,

The Salary of the President is only 25,000 dollars
—— —— of the Vice-President 10,000 ——

The 12 plates consist of a plan and view of Philadelphia,—two views of the High-street, and one of Second-street of Do.—of the Theatre and Water-works of Do.—of the Bank of the United States—of Boston—Hell-Gate—Mount Vernon—and the President's House at the city of Washington. These engravings are neatly executed.

As a firm believer in the truth of the Gospel, Mr. Janson feels virtuous indignation at the scurrilous attack on it by the author of "the Age of Reason:" but was it decorous to call him 'the accursed Thomas Paine?'

In protracting this article, we could advert to a variety of curious and amusing details which would be gratifying to the reader: but we have already extended it to a sufficient length; and from the specimens which we have given, a tolerable opinion may be formed of this book of trans-atlantic travels.

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ART. X. *A Chemical Catechism for the Use of Young People:* with copious Notes for the Assistance of the Teacher; to which are added a Vocabulary of Chemical Terms, useful Tables, and a Chapter of amusing Experiments. By S. Parkes, Manufacturing Chemist. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Symonds, &c. 1806.

THE form of question and answer is not, in our opinion, applicable to those subjects which consist principally of matters of fact; and we think that it is still more objectionable when, as in the present instance, the answers are intended to be committed to memory. Except at a very early period of life, the knowlege of any science is better obtained by the attentive perusal of an elementary treatise; which will oblige the pupil, when examined by his tutor, to express in his own words the meaning of what he has read, and will thus exercise his

his judgment as well as his memory. Catechisms of all descriptions are generally repeated by rote; and if the youth be happy enough to go through his answers without mistake, he is little anxious respecting the sense which they should convey. Admitting even that it were necessary to teach the principles of chemistry in this particular form, we cannot say that the dialogue in the volume before us is well managed. The answers are not in general sufficiently simple, nor sufficiently striking to be easily remembered. They sometimes involve hypotheses which are not afterward adequately explained; and they occasionally contain remarks that are not sanctioned by the present state of chemical knowlege.

After this free expression of our sentiments respecting what may be regarded as the main part of Mr. Parkes's publication, we shall as readily admit that the work is not without considerable merit. To the text is appended a large collection of notes, full of information of various kinds, partly extracted from other authors, and partly original. Some of these notes are to be regarded as illustrations of the text, but others have little connection with it, though in themselves valuable and interesting.—The volume is divided into 13 chapters, in which are treated the following subjects; atmospheric air, caloric, water, earths, alkalies, acids, salts, simple combustibles, metals, oxids, combustion, attraction, repulsion, and chemical affinity. The method is, on the whole, sufficiently proper; and the subjects are so arranged that the different parts of the science gradually open on the student, so that he is led on from the more simple to the more abstruse principles.

To the body of the work is prefixed 'an address to parents, on the importance of the early cultivation of the understanding; and on the advantages of giving youth a taste for chemical inquiries.' Mr. Parkes conceives that an attention to chemistry is one of the best methods of strengthening the faculties, in consequence of the interest which it must excite in the young mind, and the various useful purposes to which it may be shewn to be subservient. We have, however, some doubts on this point; because we fear that the beautiful theory of modern chemistry, from which chiefly arises the high interest that the science excites in those who have paid some attention to it, (an interest of which we are ourselves most fully sensible) would be neither relished nor understood by children. It depends on an extensive generalization of facts, to the comprehension of which their minds would certainly not be adequate; and as to the mere curiosity that might be gratified by looking at experiments, we must remark that there are other branches of natural philosophy, in which the changes occurring

to the eye are much more striking. Those wonderful decompositions which the chemist has it in his power to accomplish are generally performed on a very small scale, and with a simple apparatus; while the minute results which he obtains are more calculated to impress the judgment than the senses. The latter part of the author's address, pointing out the various arts to which chemical knowlege may be advantageously applied, is interesting and spirited.

The 'select instructive experiments' which are enumerated form a valuable addition to the book, and are judiciously chosen. The only objection that we shall make to them is, that several of them appear of a hazardous nature. Desirous, probably, of exciting curiosity as much as possible, Mr. Parkes has too frequently introduced explosive or detonating substances, the management of which requires the greatest caution, and the most experienced dexterity. We should not deem it safe for a tyro in chemistry, even of advanced age, to repeat all the processes described by Mr. Parkes; much less would we trust such substances as phosphorus and the fulminating powder in the hands of 'young people.'

We have already mentioned that the notes contain a considerable portion of valuable information, of a very miscellaneous nature: but we are sorry that Mr. Parkes has been induced to advert to one subject which he evidently does not understand: his attachment to his favourite science has led him to adopt all the extravagances of the pneumatic medicine. He recommends that ammoniac should be given in cases 'where the humors are too much oxygenized;' and he informs us that 'nitrogen gas has been medicinally administered with success in cases of increased irritability, such as inflammations,' &c.—We shall conclude this article with some quotations from the notes, which will give a more favourable specimen of the work:

'Muriatic acid attacks oxide of iron with more rapidity than the sulphuric. It dissolves tin and lead. At a boiling heat it oxidizes copper.

'Muriatic acid removes the stains of common ink, but it does not affect printers-ink. It is therefore recommended for cleaning old books and prints. Half an ounce of red-lead being added to three ounces of common muriatic acid, will render it fit for this purpose. (Parkinson.) Where writings have been effaced for fraudulent purposes with this acid, sulphuret of ammonia and prussiate of potash will revive the writing, and discover the artifice. Very old writing may be revived in this way. If indigo and oxide of manganese be added to common ink, it will prevent its being effaced by oxygenized muriatic acid.

'The citric acid is proper for removing ink stains from linen, but they are best removed when recent. If they remain long on the

cloth, the iron of the ink acquires that degree of oxidizement which renders it insoluble in acids. When ink stains are thus become what are called *iron moulds*, they may be removed by oxalic acid, or by first washing them with a solution of sulphuret of potash to absorb the oxygen, and then applying the acid of lemon as usual.'—

'Some animals have very peculiar phosphorescent qualities. The light of the glow-worm is well known, but the *pyrosoma atlanticum* has not been described by naturalists. M Peron, on his voyage from Europe to the Isle of France, observed this animal between 3 and 4 degrees north latitude. Its phosphorescent quality, so truly prodigious, renders it one of the most beautiful of zoophites known: and its organization ranks it amongst the most singular. When it was first discovered, the darkness was intense, the wind blew with violence, and the progress of the vessel was rapid. All at once there appeared, at some distance, as it were a vast sheet of phosphorous floating on the waves; and it occupied a great space before the vessel. The vessel soon passed through this inflamed part of the sea; and they discovered that this prodigious light was occasioned entirely by an immense number of small animals, which swam at different depths, and appeared to assume various forms. Those which were deepest looked like great red-hot cannon balls; whilst those on the surface resembled cylinders of red-hot iron. Some of them were soon caught, and were found to vary in size from three to seven inches. All the *exterior* surface of the animal was bristled with thick oblong tubercles, shining like so many diamonds; and these seemed to be the principal seat of its wonderful phosphorescence. In the inside also there appeared a multitude of little oblong narrow glands, which possessed the phosphoric virtue in a high degree. The colour of these animals, when in repose, is of an opal yellow mixed with green; bnt on the slightest movement of those spontaneous contractions which it exercises, or those which the observer can at pleasure cause by the least irritation, the animal inflames, and becomes instantly like red-hot iron, and of a most brilliant brightness. As it loses its phosphorescence it passes through a number of tints successively, which are extremely agreeable, light, and varied, such as red, aurora, orange, green, and azure blue: this last shade is particularly lively and pure. A further account of this curious creature may be seen in the Journal de Physique.'

Mr. Parkes designates himself 'a manufacturing chemist.' It is evident that the objections to his publication, which we have already offered, do not apply to his operative skill, which we have neither inclination nor authority for questioning.

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ART. XI. *Lectures on Belles Lettres and Logic.* By the late William Barron, F.R.S. Ed., and Professor of Belles Lettres and Logic in the University of St. Andrew's. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1806.

BY cultivating the principles of a correct taste, we may be said to expand and purify our sensations; and in conse-

quence of an habitual association of them with the mind, we bring those faculties of the body, by means of which we obtain delight from material objects, to act in concert with the intellect. In this view, the study of the *beaux arts* must contribute to elevate us in the rank of sentient beings; and if the pleasures hence arising tend to refine our nature, the *belles lettres*, with which they are intimately connected, must have a still greater influence in softening and *moralizing* the animal man. Pure science makes us wise: but it is literature which gives us a polish, and opens sources of enjoyment to which ignorant savages are total strangers.

The *Belles Lettres*, therefore, form an indispensible part of liberal education; and various books have been written to assist the student in analyzing the productions of genius, and in guiding the judgment in the several departments of taste. To be absolutely original in this walk is scarcely to be expected; and to diffuse even a semblance of novelty over works of this kind requires a patient reading of antient and modern classics. La Harpe and Blair may save the more recent lecturer much trouble; and the temptation is so great that we are not surprised at their being often plundered. Were it not stated that the lectures of Mr. Barron were intended by him for publication, we should have supposed, from their resemblance to Blair's volumes, that the late Professor designed them merely for the private use of his pupils; without meaning to subject them to be compared by the ~~public~~ critic with the work to which he has been so evidently indebted, and with which the comparison cannot be made but to his own disadvantage. Even in the Introduction, we discover a similarity, though it is artfully disguised. Blair says;

"It is indeed impossible to contrive an art, and very pernicious it were if it could be contrived, which should give the stamp of merit to any composition rich or splendid in expression, but barren or erroneous in thought. They are the wretched attempts towards an art of this kind, which have so often disgraced oratory, and debased it below its true standard. The graces of composition have been employed to disguise or to supply the want of matter; and the temporary applause of the ignorant has been courted, instead of the lasting approbation of the discerning. But such imposture can never maintain its ground long. Knowlege and science must furnish the materials that form the body and substance of any valuable composition. Rhetoric serves to add the polish; and we know that none but firm and solid bodies can be polished well."

Nothing can be more elegantly and nervously expressed than this passage. Mr. Barron takes up the same sentiment, but he is more diffuse in its illustration:

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'Let it not, however, be imagined, while I recommend careful attention to manner, and exhibit the happy fruits of industry, that I mean to applaud, or even to tolerate, those puerile niceties and trifling ornaments in style and manner, by which many writers and speakers in all ages have pretended to obtain fame. All attempts of this sort are unworthy of a composer of true genius, and should meet from the critic with nothing but contempt. The primary excellence of a production of genuine merit, and which may expect to possess the approbation of futurity, is to hold forth to the reader matter solid, important and instructive. It is only a secondary object, however necessary, to elucidate that matter in a style simple, perspicuous, and elegant, adorned indeed, but void of affectation, or the appearance of art. Let the performer of genius never attempt to attract attention by the brilliancy of his manner, rather than *by the solidity of his matter*. Never let him aim to disguise trivial or common sentiments with the pomp of language and studied ornaments, nor to dazzle, or even to please, rather than to inform. Let him relinquish such mean arts to declaimers and sophists, who are captivated with the unmeaning applause of the superficial and unthinking part of mankind. Let him study to please, but to please chiefly by instructing. Let the excellence of his manner discover its propriety and artifice to good judges, never let it push itself forward to intercept the view of his principal object.'

The similarity of the sentence which immediately follows this extract from Mr. Barron's Introduction, to that which as immediately follows the passage quoted from Dr. Blair, clearly shews the use which the former made of the work of the latter. We shall place the two paragraphs in juxta-position:

Dr. Blair. "Of those who peruse the following Lectures, some in consequence either of their profession or of their prevailing inclination, may have the view of being employed in composition, or in public speaking. Others, without any prospect of this kind, may wish only to improve their taste with respect to writing and discourse, and to acquire principles which will enable them to judge for themselves in that part of literature called the Belles Lettres."

Mr. Barron. 'But the utility of speaking and writing which I attempt to recommend, is not confined to the particular class of men who may be led by their stations in life to put them in public practice. They are studies in which all ranks in society are more or less interested; because they are the chief means of communication in all the arts and sciences, in all the business and social intercourse of life.'

Again, Blair says: "True Rhetoric and sound Logic are very nearly allied;" and Barron observes: 'The rules of criticism are no more than the deductions of sound Logic.' The beginning of Lecture 35 in Blair and of Lecture 38 in Barron (both with the same title) have too striking a similarity to be the effect of accident.

A glance at the table of contents in both works will discover that, if Mr. Barron has not servilely copied the arrangement of

his prototype, he has derived great assistance from it; and that the "*Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres*" superseded the necessity, in a great measure, of the publication now before us. We have not here, indeed, any Lectures which correspond with those on Taste, Criticism, and the Sublime, which take the lead in Blair's work: but Mr. Barron commences, after a preliminary address on the advantages of culture in the arts of speaking and writing, with 'the Progress of Language,' corresponding with Blair's 7th Lecture on the same subject. Here the Professor delivers his sentiments on the origin and formation of Language:

'Language, whether written or spoken, is the great instrument of communicating knowledge. An examination, therefore, of its structure, will form a proper introduction to our inquiries concerning eloquence.

'Spoken language may be defined to be, the art of communicating thought by means of certain articulate sounds, which have been adopted for that purpose by the common consent of society. They are called articulate, on account of the distinctness and variety with which they are pronounced, and because they are in a great measure confined ot the human species. They are obviously acquired by imitation, and although there is nothing, perhaps, in the conformation of the organs of inferior animals, that precludes the possibility of their imitating the sounds of speech, yet they are, almost all of them, destitute either of the capacity or the inclination to make any progress of importance in this art. The sounds of language are called articulate for another reason, namely, to distinguish them from the natural, but more violent expressions of emotion and passion, which are universally understood, and are nearly the same in all ages and nations. Some of these natural expressions make a part of language, and are arranged under the class of words commonly called interjections. Others of them, such as the sounds significant of pain, can scarcely be said to belong to language. They are the immediate voice of nature herself diffused through the species, and even communicated to some of the inferior animals. The natural interjections are nearly the same in most languages; but articulate sounds, or words, are all arbitrary, and consequently are different in different languages.

'When we consider written language as a symbol of spoken, and spoken language as a representation of ideas, and observe at the same time how little relation subsists between letters and sounds, and again between sounds and ideas, we are astonished at the artifice with which language has been constructed, and that it should accomplish so completely the purposes of communication. Some inquirers, misled by the admiration excited by this singular effort of ingenuity, have been tempted to consider it as supernatural, and have ventured to assign inspiration as the only supposeable origin of language. But the whole history of its progress, and the result of daily observation, oppose this supposition, if they do not even expose it to ridicule. The progress of language manifestly keeps pace with the progress of society, both in point of knowledge and civilization; and in examining

ing them conjointly, they mutually *throw much illustration* on one another.'

If to this passage any objection will be made, it is in that part which so decidedly pronounces against the opinion, that mankind owe the origin of language to inspiration; we find nothing in the book of Genesis to justify such a suggestion, while the diversity of languages serves completely to refute it. We may with equal reason attribute to this source the origin of music, dying, printing, spinning, &c.

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The next lecture considers Inversions, which form such a prominent feature in the Greek and Latin languages, and is on the whole tolerably correct.

Mr. Barron presents us with three lectures on the Principles of Grammar; and one on Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections, which correspond with those of his predecessor on the Structure of Language.

Mo-y.

While the following extract from the fourth lecture will manifest the confused reasoning in which the author is frequently bewildered when he loses sight of his guide, it will also furnish a favourable specimen of his style:

'The elegant languages of Greece and Rome employed the male and female genders to *denote real difference of sex*; but by an arrangement somewhat extraordinary, they constituted a third or neuter gender, *altogether without foundation in nature.* Powerful as the influence of custom is over language, it seldom deviates very far from nature without necessity; and by a little attention to the structure of these languages, we perceive a reason for this phenomenon. One of two expedients seems to have been necessary; either to confine the genders of language to the two of nature,—to allow two terminations to adjectives, suited to these genders, and consequently to arrange all the substantives expressive of substances destitute of sex, under those of male or female; or, to place the males under one gender, the females under another, to form a third of those substantives which were naturally neither male nor female, and to allow three terminations to adjectives, adapted to this classification of substantives. These circumstances, it is obvious, rendered the deviation from nature necessary, and it is difficult to determine which of these expedients was the least exceptionable. The latter was thought preferable by the Greeks and Romans; the former has been adopted by the Italians, the French, and the Spaniards. In the languages of Greece and Rome, accordingly, three genders are introduced, and almost all their adjectives are formed with their terminations corresponding to these genders; in which they have been followed by the modern Greeks. In the languages of Italy, France, and Spain, two genders only have been admitted; all their neuter nouns have been made either masculine or feminine, and two genders have been allotted to their adjectives, suited to the classification of their substantives.

'The English language possesses the merit of being an exact copy of nature in respect of gender; *and it has acquired this merit, by allow-*

ing no distinction of gender to its adjectives. Though the rejection of gender in our adjectives may appear to impair the concord and relations of our words, and, consequently, to circumscribe the variety of our arrangements, yet the propriety of our practice in this respect is founded on reason. What are adjectives? They are a class of words which explain and ascertain the signification of substantives, by denoting some qualities or properties which belong to them. The adjectives black, white, great, little, round, square, express attributes only of the substantives to which they are conjoined, and have no useful or communicable meaning abstracted from their principals.'

In treating of Articles in the succeeding lecture, the Professor attempts to establish a curious distinction:

'In respect of articles, our own is, perhaps, the most perfect language in the world. The Greek, the French, the Italian, and the Spanish, possess only the definite article. The Greeks, indeed, supplied the place of the indefinite article, by the absence of the definite; the Italians, the Spaniards, and the French, by the adjective *one*.'

Here the advantage in avoiding occasionl ambiguity, which our forefathers gained by dividing their *ane* into *one*, *a*, or *an*, as they wished to designate an object with a greater or less degree of numerical strictness, is magnified into the exclusive possession of the indefinite article; an absurdity into which it might have been supposed that no one in the least acquainted with these languages would have fallen. It is fortunate for the German grammarians that Mr. Barron was apparently unacquainted with their language; since the great and little *E*, with which they endeavour to distinguish their *Ein*, adjective, and *ein*, article, would scarcely have saved the latter from this extensive proscription.

Professor B. has entered rather largely into the theory of modes, tenses, &c. respecting which he affords as much (or, more properly speaking as little) information as the most part of his predecessors. Perhaps we have no greater desideratum in philosophical grammar than a just account of the origin and formation of the modes and tenses of verbs; with respect to which, a simple and rational theory would be equally gratifying to the philologist and the practical linguist.

The succeeding Lectures are distinguished from their prototypes in Blair chiefly by their arrangement, one peculiarity of which consists in regularly introducing an important subject towards the end of one Lecture, and finishing it at the beginning of another; a mode of distribution which appears with as little grace as in the broken narrative of Scheherazade, and without offering the same excuse.

It not unfrequently happens that the author places the opinions of others in a false or obscure point of view, and then pronounces them to be unsatisfactory and absurd:

'All

'All the ancient rhetoricians have treated of the nature of periods; but there is either something uncommonly refined in the topic, or they have been less successful in this quarter than in any other department of their subject. Even Aristotle's definition, which has been adopted and applauded by Demetrius Phalereus, must be acknowledged to be obscure and unsatisfactory. "What I call a period," says he, in his third book of rhetoric, "is a portion of composition, which has a beginning and an end, and fills a space which may be comprehended in one view."

'That a period is a portion of composition, will readily be admitted; but what information concerning its specific properties is to be derived from the predicate of the definition, which acquaints us, that it has a beginning and an end, and fills a space comprehensible in one view? There are many objects in nature, to which this definition may be applied with equal propriety. It may describe a word, a line, a page, as well as a period; and it will communicate equal information about them all. It is to be regretted, that this profound critic and philosopher was sometimes more ambitious to advance what was uncommon, than what was instructive; more intent to excite the admiration of his reader, than to extend his knowledge.'

These strictures are neither candid nor well founded. The passage in question is, Λέγω δὲ περίοδον λέξιν ἔχουσαν ἀρχὴν καὶ τελευτὴν καθ' αὑτὴν, καὶ μέγεθος εὐσύνοπτον *; the sense of which must be understood to be, "I call a period a portion of speech possessing a complete meaning within itself, and presenting an object which is discernible at one view." Cicero, and particularly Quintilian, are also objects of animadversion: but indeed their explanations are less satisfactory than that of the Stagyrite.

The doctrine of figures is on the whole correctly treated: but, like the rest of the work, it suffers from defective method.

In his Lectures on style, the author nearly follows the divisions of Blair, but is not so happy in defining his terms. An elegant style he describes as follows:

'Elegance of style is a combination of all those qualities which are most generally approved in writing. It assumes different qualities, or larger portions of the same qualities, according as the performance is addressed to the understanding and the imagination, or to the understanding, the imagination, and the passions, in conjunction. I consider all elegant compositions which attempt not to affect the passions, as addressed to the understanding and the imagination, on account of the important information they contain, and the ornaments with which they are embellished; for without embellishment the elegant relapses into the concise or the simple, which, renouncing the gratification of the imagination, solicit only the attention of the under-

* Aristot. Rhet. Lib. III. Cap. 9.

standing. I consider all elegant compositions which interest the passions as addressed to the understanding, the imagination, and the passions in conjunction; the matter, as before, engaging the understanding, and the matter and the embellishments captivating the imagination and the passion.'

After this the author proceeds to adduce examples of elegant composition, and to point out the faults to which an attempt to attain that style is most liable.

The arrangement observed in the second divison of this work, which treats of public speaking, is formed still more closely on Blair; though a variety of minute details are added, some of which may be found valuable in practice. In this class we do not include the instruction for a whining delivery, which is held out as rather a captivating manner, notwithstanding the general dissuasive that follows:

'Singing is perhaps derived from the same causes as the cadencies of oratory. Fatigue and loud speaking give it birth; ease, and perhaps the reputed sanctity of it, tempt its continuance. Of all expedients to render loud speaking easy, a song seems to be the most successful. It consists of a short musical cadence, and every sentence is delivered nearly in the same circuit of sound. The speaker resigns every variety of elocution, to conform all his tones to the music of the same short song. The apparent melody, however, of the song, not to mention the sincerity and piety of which the vulgar generally account it a characteristic, recommends it to unpolished ears, and makes them often prefer it to a manner more natural and expressive. All the speaker has to do, is to pause regularly at the termination of his note, and to commence it with a full respiration. It is, besides, an effectual preservative against all improper rapidity in pronunciation which is extremely fatiguing to the speaker, is very consumptive of his matter, is an error into which he is extremely apt to fall when he warms with his subject, and has not committed to writing all he has to speak. In a word, let a preacher possess a good song and a firm confidence, and he will, with little trouble to himself, satisfy the most insatiable audience, both in point of loudness and length. I need not, however, observe, that the speaker who indulges in this manner has bid a final adieu to eminence. He may captivate the vulgar, but the utmost allowance he can expect is to be tolerated by men of taste.'

Volume II. commences with the 3d and last part of the Lectures on Belles Lettres, which embraces written Language. Here also the author seldom quits the footsteps of his predecessor, and his deviations are still more seldom successful. Instead of pointing out as the peculiar province of epic Poetry the narrative of some heroic enterprize with appropriate dignity of style, he supposes, with Bossu, that the chief object in all legitimate compositions in this class is to inculcate some important moral lesson, to which purpose every other part of the poem is subordinate. An attentive observation of the conduct

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of men, actuated by powerful interests, and under the influence of violent passions, is undoubtedly well calculated to suggest many important reflections; and when the genius of the poet has enabled him to paint warm from nature, the lesson is scarcely less instructive: but this appears to be the sole ground of the hypothesis in question.

n examining the respective merits of the principal writers in this department, Mr. Barron again does little more than copy Blair. The character assigned to the *Orlando Furioso* betrays a very superficial acquaintance with that wild but splendid performance.

Since the Lectures on Belles Lettres are not calculated to create any high idea of the powers of the author as a correct reasoner, it was with much surprize and pleasure that we found in the Lectures on Logic a great degree of ease and perspicuity of language, united to simplicity and regularity of plan. We however, occasionally recognized the writer of the preceding Lectures. The following passage was probably intended to convey a different precept from that which the words seem to imply. Having remarked the unreasonableness of drawing universal conclusions from our observation of human actions, which are frequently dictated by passion and caprice, he adds:

'A man, who wishes to gain real influence in the world, will never rest resolutions on speculation. He will mix with mankind, and *accommodate his opinions to characters and circumstances*, and if these lead not to decision, he will patiently suspend judgment, and remain inactive; or he will act so *ambiguously*, that he may avail himself of better information when it shall occur.'

The last five Lectures might perhaps have been shortened without much inconvenience. Their minute details respecting the syllogistic mode of reasoning, though interesting and instructive, belong rather to the history of the science than to the science itself, from which they are now discarded; while the prolix enumeration of all the branches of knowlege appears to be altogether superfluous.

From an advertisement prefixed, we learn that these lectures were read during twenty-five sessions in the University of St. Andrew's; and that a sudden illness, which about three years ago put a period to the author's existence, prevented him from superintending their progress through the press.—Had the Professor lived, it seems hardly probable that he would have permitted the Lectures on Belles Lettres to meet the public eye without acknowleging the assistance derived from Dr. Blair, and without revising if not new modelling the whole work.—An Index should have been subjoined by the Editor.

J. Man. jun.

ART. but see p. 71.

ART. XII. *A practical Treatise on the Diseases of the Stomach, and of Digestion;* including the History and Treatment of those Affections of the Liver and Digestive Organs, which occur in Persons who return from the East or West Indies; with Observations on various Medicines, and particularly on the improper Use of Emetics. By A.D. Stone, M.D. 8vo. pp. 300. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1806.

THE author of this work has divided it into three parts, treating of physiology and anatomy, history of diseases of the stomach, and treatment of diseases. In the section on the anatomy of the stomach, we have some observations on the number of coats which this organ possesses; which, he thinks, ought to be reduced to one only, viz. the villous, the peritoneal being no more than the common covering of all the abdominal viscera, and the muscular fibres not existing in a sufficiently compact state to intitle them to the appellation of a coat. Dr. Stone also contends that the villous, or, as he considers it, the proper coat of the stomach is not composed of cellular membrane, because it does not possess any elasticity, a property which he deems essential to this substance. The controversy is entirely verbal, depending on the definition which is assigned to cellular membrane: but we must acknowlege that it appears to us more natural to class all the membranous parts under the same title, as they exactly agree in their chemical nature, and are essentially different from any other parts of the body.

Dr. Stone's physiological remarks are devoted to the consideration of the process of digestion, and the nature of the bile: but on this subject his ideas appear to us ill-defined and obscure. He seems to imagine that the first step in the process of digestion consists in the action of an acid, with which the aliment meets in the stomach, and that the process is completed by the soda which exists in the bile. In illustration of this hypothesis, some experiments on milk are related; which we regard as both uninteresting in the detail, and of little value as affording any foundation for physiological reasoning. We confess that we have seldom seen a more trifling or abortive attempt at experimental investigation.

An account of the different diseases to which the stomach is liable occupies the second part of the work. The first complaint mentioned is acidity, which the author supposes to be produced by the alkaline matter in the bile not existing in sufficient quantity to neutralize the acid that is formed in the stomach. We have a minute account of the morbid symptoms produced by repletion, a disorder that frequently prevails among persons of a studious turn; and likewise among that set of artists who are obliged, from the nature of their employment, to bear on the

the chest or stomach, as is particularly the case with shoemakers. A disease much resembling apoplexy, and which is generally considered as such, is occasionally produced by repletion: but Dr. S. imagines that it is essentially different from this complaint, and that the brain is only symptomatically affected. A diagnosis, it is said, may be formed from the appearance of the eyes: if the pupils contract equally, and especially if there be no appearance of palsy on either side of the body, we may conclude that the stomach alone requires attention. This is an important practical observation.

Under the head of poisons, the author offers some remarks on digitalis, a medicine against which he appears to entertain the most decided prejudice. Although he admits that it increases the flow of urine, and carries off dropsical swellings, yet he adds:

'It unquestionably appears from reasoning that a medicine, of which the direct effect is to lessen the muscular action of the arterial system, is contra-indicated in dropsy; and for myself, I can truly affirm that, by the exhibition of other medicines, particularly by the various preparations of squill, by oxymel Colchici, and by the combination of these with Mercury, I have exceeded my most sanguine expectations, and have seen dropsical patients restored to health, which in several instances has been permanent, even where danger was imminent. It has also occurred to my observation, that few of those, who have taken digitalis freely, have survived a twelvemonth.'

We feel ourselves under the necessity of informing the author that no medical reasoning, however plausible, deserves the least attention, which is contrary to experience; and that such vague and sweeping remarks, as those quoted above, pass for nothing in the mind of the accurate inquirer after truth.

We do not observe any thing particularly valuable in the chapter on the state of the stomach after a residence in hot climates, or that which is produced by hard drinking. The disease called pyrosis seems to be confounded with cardialgia by Dr. Stone, when he says that it is particularly troublesome to pregnant woman; and his opinion, that in this case it chiefly depends on the torpor induced on the abdominal viscera by the increased bulk of the uterus, is a very unsatisfactory explanation.

The chapter on hypochondriasis contains some good remarks on this most distressing malady, the symptoms of which are so various as almost to baffle any attempt at description. Dr. Stone observes that those which are 'the most constant and remarkable are the continued acidity of stomach, with affection of the head, and constipation.' At the same time, he says 'that melancholia may in a great measure depend upon original affection

tion of the viscera concerned in digestion, that it may exist with none or little affection of these viscera, and sometimes that it may produce such affection.'

The treatment of the diseases of the stomach is separated from the account of the symptoms, and forms the third part of the work; an arrangement which, we think, is on every account objectionable. Dr. Stone commences by a section on emetics; a species of remedy which he is of opinion has been at all times employed much too frequently and indiscriminately. In this general sentiment we are disposed to coincide; and it derives a considerable degree of probability from the circumstance that the administration of emetics has certainly become less frequent in proportion to the improvement in medical science. We suspect, however, that the author exceedingly magnifies the evils arising from the use of emetics; and we attribute the circumstance of their being less frequently employed, in modern practice, to their being deemed useless rather than mischievous. Any mechanical injury to the structure or organization of the stomach, an effect which Dr. Stone appears to consider as not unfrequently produced by emetics, we cannot but regard as a very rare occurrence.—An equally singular antipathy is manifested in the chapter on the treatment of the stomach and abdominal viscera after residence in hot climates; in which he descants, at some length, on the dangerous properties of castor oil. He derives his objection to the use of this remedy from the circumstance that its purgative quality resides, not in the oil itself, but in an acrid substance contained in the nut; which, according to the method employed in the extraction of the oil, may exist in it in a greater or less proportion. The fact mentioned by Dr. S. is admitted: but, in reply, we may allege a most extensive range of experience in favor of the remedy, perhaps as extensive as that of any other article in the *materia medica;* from which we learn that these fancied evils do not exist.

In the treatment of those complaints of the stomach which are consequent on a residence in hot climates, the author seems to consider the exhibition of mercury as, in all cases, indispensible; probably from an idea that the liver is always more or less affected; and he judges it to be equally proper, both when there is an excessive secretion of bile, and when there is a deficiency of this fluid. Purgatives are evidently indicated, but they require considerable caution in their administration, and must be frequently varied, according to the effect which they produce on the system, and to any peculiarity in the constitution; the cure is to be completed by tonics and bitters. Dr. Stone also thinks that mercury is always proper in that disease

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of the digestive organs which is produced by hard drinking. From the comparatively small size of the hepatic artery, he supposes that the liver must partake less in the general affection of the system when under the influence of mercury, than most other parts of the body; and hence he infers that the medicine should be liberally applied. We do not altogether see the force of this reasoning, and we apprehend that experience is frequently unfavorable to Dr. Stone's speculations. We believe that the liver is not uniformly schirrous in this complaint; and that, where it is in an indurated state, other affections are sometimes combined with it, which render the employment of mercury a hazardous, if not fatal expedient.

On the whole, although we are willing to allow that Dr. Stone's publication is not devoid of merit, we are obliged to report that its defects counterbalance its excellences. The principal object that ought to be held in view, in a work treating of the diseases of the stomach and neighbouring viscera, is the establishment of accurate diagnoses between affections, which, although considerably similar in their symptoms, sometimes depend on different causes, and even require opposite modes of treatment. For this nicety of discrimination, however, we look in vain in the work before us; and, in its stead, we find crude pathological speculations, unsupported by any fair deduction from the laws of the animal economy, and inconsiderate censures passed on particular medicines and modes of practice, derived from some hasty and unfounded hypotheses.

Bos.

Art. XIII. *A Speech on the Character of the Right Hon. William Pitt*, delivered in Trinity College Chapel, Cambridge, Dec. 17, 1806; being Comemoration Day. By William Edward Pretyman Tomline. Second Edition. 4to. pp. 23. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1806.

At Rome, it is said, there is a fixed period within which the Beatitude is never conferred. The obvious design of this rule is to prevent the Sacred College from falling into the disgrace of mistaking a pretender for a real saint, and of confounding ingenious tricks with genuine miracles. We had understood that Academic panegyric was subject to a similar regulation, in the distinguished establishment in which the eulogium before us was pronounced. How it happened, in the present instance, to be disregarded, is to us wholly unknown: but if this usage might in any case yield to circumstances, it may be contended that no occasion could occur in which a departure from it would be more proper; since it does not

not admit of a question that Cambridge is under eminent obligations to the personage here celebrated; or that her sons shared largely in the patronage of which he was long the sole dispenser. He liberally rewarded those who were so fortunate as to secure his favour: but they were personal and political services which he considered; and of the ample returns which he made for slight exertions in this department, the elevation of the reverend Head,* to whom this Discourse is dedicated, furnishes a memorable instance.

If, however, the favours heaped by Mr. Pitt on the University indicated little of disinterestedness, it must equally perhaps be admitted that the devotion which she paid in return originated from motives in no degree more exalted. To the patriotism and talents which rendered his unpreferred youth distinguishing, she scornfully refused her *eligits*: but when the Prime Minister became her suitor, her coyness disappeared, she readily surrendered herself to his wishes, and at his request allowed his friend to share in her favours. This connection was the dictate of prudence rather than the result of affection; but the wooer, though juvenile, was discreet; and though there were little of real love on either side, the appearances and demonstrations of it were kept up unabated to the last. It was not until her widowhood, that the sensibility of *alma mater* was displayed in all its fervour: but in her weeds the accents of her sorrow, and the transports of her grief, attracted notice from every corner of the empire. A tribute was decreed to her late favourite which far surpassed all that she had ever done in honor of the most pious of her founders, or the most illustrious of her scientific and lettered sons: a sum large enough to endow a lucrative professorship was raised; and she called on a foreign region to furnish an artist, whose genius was alone deemed adequate to commemorate the long and happy union between the illustrious parties.

To the detailed notice which we propose to take of this speech, we are induced by a persuasion that it has undergone a careful and minute revisal from a learned and accomplished prelate; who, we rest assured, neither permitted any trait to remain in this sketch of which he disapproved, nor omitted to supply any which he deemed necessary to complete the design: who was intimately connected with the original of the portrait; and to whom the youthful artist is most closely bound by the nearest hereditary ties.—While, however, academic rumour and our own clear convictions restrain us from assigning all the credit of this laboured production to Mr.

* Dr. Mansell, Master of Trinity College.

Tomline, let us not be supposed to deny that he conceived the design; nor even that many of the happier and bolder lines have been traced by his *unguided* pencil.

The speech informs us that

'Mr. Pitt came to the University unusually young. Though his constitution was naturally weak, and from the age of six to fifteen the course of his education was frequently interrupted by actual illness, he had acquired, under the immediate eye of his illustrious Father, a degree of knowledge never surpassed at that early period of life. During a residence of more than double the time commonly passed here by persons of his rank, he was equally remarkable for the most diligent application to study, and for the most exact conformity to the discipline of his college: he spent not an idle day, nor was he guilty of a single irregularity. He made the greatest proficiency in all those branches of knowledge to which Academical honors are assigned; and at the same time he became intimately acquainted with every other subject which might contribute to qualify him for the profession of the law, his original destination, and for those important offices in the state to which his birth and talents gave him a right to aspire. His legal practice was of short duration: but sufficiently long to prove, that had he continued it, he must rapidly have risen to the highest stations in that honorable and laborious profession.'

It was a rare and distinguishing trait of Mr. Pitt, (as is here observed,) that 'at once, and from the first, he displayed a brilliancy of eloquence, a maturity of understanding, and a correctness of judgment, which excited the utmost astonishment in those who had been accustomed to consider these qualities, even in an inferior degree, as the late acquisition of age and experience;' and we add that to him the description given of a renowned character of antiquity was eminently applicable;

"*Scilicet ingenium et rerum prudentia velox*
Ante pilos venit. Dicenda, tacendaque calles." (PERS.)

We agree with the orator that the difficulties, with which Mr. Pitt had to struggle on his accession to office, were very formidable; if, as it is here well expressed, 'we reflect upon the *inefficiency of his coadjutors*, and upon the splendid talents, powerful eloquence, and commanding influence of his opponents;' and we believe it to be equally true 'that the energy of his mind ever rose with the occasion, that dangers never depressed, and difficulties never embarrassed him.'

General praise is here bestowed on the East India bill; while the financial measures, and particularly the plan of the Sinking Fund, are more largely noticed, and receive those encomiums which none who are conversant with the principles of national prosperity will deny to them. We are told that

'Various projects for preventing a national bankruptcy were communicated to him by ingenious and speculative men: but after a careful

careful and impartial examination he rejected them all, as inadequate or impracticable. Instead of any of these visionary schemes, which would rather have aggravated than lessened the evil, he adopted that plain and simple mode, *the suggestion of his own mind*, the wisdom and efficacy of which have been incontrovertibly proved by the experience of more than twenty years. In the course of this long period, its operation has been uniform and regular; no revisal, no alteration, has been necessary; no improvement, either in the principle, or in the application of the principle, has been even attempted. In the progress of this measure through the House of Commons, its merits were so obvious, as to extort the commendation and support of those who acted in systematic opposition to government; and this unanimous concurrence in Parliament was prophetic of that universal admiration which it has since obtained, among all political parties and all descriptions of men.'

This statement ought to be considered as founded on good authority: but we believe that we are justified in asserting, *è contra*, that the principle and the plan were furnished by that eminent calculator of the day, Dr. Price. It is purely for the sake of historical accuracy that we advert to this fact. The merit of a minister, we conceive, consists less in devising beneficial plans, than in adopting and carrying them into effect, from whatever quarter they originate.

Mr. T. then proceeds to remark:

'The active and comprehensive mind of this truly wonderful man was not content with relieving his Country from the pressure of present burthens; he formed another plan, so exclusively his own, that the idea seems never to have entered the thoughts of any other person. By this plan it was made absolutely impossible to contract any new debt, without at the same time providing the means of discharging it within a moderate number of years. Having by his former sinking fund removed all danger arising from the existing debt incurred by past wars, by this new sinking fund, which was so contrived that it must necessarily increase with the increasing debt, he obviated, as far as the nature of the thing will admit, the danger to be apprehended from the expences of all future wars to the latest period of time. Can a more perfect system of finance be conceived by the imagination of man? Can human foresight be directed to a more useful political purpose? To the united effect of these two measures we are indebted for the power of carrying on that contest in which we have now been engaged for nearly fourteen years, in defence of the liberty and independence of our country.

'That nothing might be wanting to our internal welfare, he was studious to improve our resources, by giving every possible encouragement to trade, navigation, and manufactures; and to the wisdom and policy of his regulations upon those important points, the commercial part of the community has been ever ready to bear the amplest testimony. Never perhaps was there a more favourable change in the general situation of any Country, than in the first nine years of Mr. Pitt's administration. The dejection and gloom which hung over this

this kingdom at the beginning of that period, were gradually dispelled and were succeeded by a degree of prosperity far beyond the most sanguine expectations.'

We admit that history will incorporate with itself every syllable of this passage, and it certainly exhibits its illustrious subject in a point of view highly gratifying. Had his career ended at this period, he would have descended to posterity as a splendid public character, a benefactor of his country, and a choice favorite of fortune: but like a great potentate of the last and preceding centuries, it was his fate, after a morning and a meridian of great effulgence, to have his evening agitated by fearful storms, and finally to set beneath a dark and threatening horizon.

Our interference in the affairs of Holland is next noticed. That measure experienced at the time the approbation of all parties at home: but facts have since shewn that it was inauspicious. It made the Anti-Stadtholderians our irreconcileable enemies, threw them into the arms of France, and generated in them that desperate hatred which made them behold with satisfaction the eventual subjugation of their country. Had we exerted our power to establish a good understanding between the parties, instead of giving to one of them the ascendancy, this incalculable evil might have been avoided.

The speaker compliments Mr. Pitt on his insight into the nature and tendency of the French Revolution: but our own sentiments are widely at variance with this statement. It is our decided opinion that Mr. Pitt grossly misapprehended that awful event, erred egregiously in his estimate of it, and completely mistook the treatment which it required. On this occasion, he is to be classed with those who, *cum obesse vellent, profuerunt.* He added to the inveteracy and strength of the malady which he undertook to eradicate; and the effects of his prescriptions proved invariably the reverse of those which he predicted. Foreign pressure was not the remedy for which the mischief called. It was within her own precincts that a statesman ought to have found employment for France; he ought to have maintained a balance between the parties into which she was divided, to have assisted the La Fayettes against the Brissots, and the Brissots against the Robespierres; and most impolitic was it exclusively to countenance the impracticable and half frantic devotees of the *ancien regime.* He, however, deemed it contamination to be in contact with any of the revolutionary parties; and thus he sacrificed policy to sickly sentiment, and made private feeling the rule of his political conduct. He acted, indeed, in unison with the passions of the day, and steered his course before the gale of popular clamour: but thus

he plunged into the war in all the wild spirit of knight errantry, and sought to act a principal when a secondary part was his province. The effects of this precipitate interference in aggrandizing France, and in increasing our own burthens, do not require to be detailed: they are too generally felt to need description. The event fully shews that Mr. Pitt was thrown on a crisis to which he was not equal; and his failure on this occasion proves that, however transcendant his abilities were in other respects, and however well fitted he might be for all the rest of the higher duties of a statesman, his superiority did not discover itself in regulating the foreign relations of a great empire. In pronouncing the inaptitude of Mr. Pitt for this province, we feel the utmost confidence that our sentence will be ratified by the decision of posterity.

In justifying the late war, the eulogist observes:

'He called forth the resources of the Country, and applied them with wisdom and success. He discontinued the practice of private loans and beneficial contracts, which had not only been a great loss to the nation, but the source of considerable influence to former ministers; and adopted new and far less expensive modes of conducting these branches of the public service. Having increased our army, and raised our naval strength to a degree it had never before reached, he shewed the greatest judgment in selecting proper officers to command the different expeditions. Our victories at sea have been splendid beyond example: and our armies, whenever they have been engaged alone, have uniformly triumphed over the enemy. To Mr. Pitt we owe that admirable system for the internal defence of the Kingdom, which the patriotism and courage of the people enabled him to carry into full effect. This important measure while it restrained the disaffected at home, displayed to our enemy such a spirit of loyalty, and such a body of military force, that he has never ventured to execute his boasted threat of invasion.'

That Mr. Pitt 'called forth the the resources of the country,' we feelingly admit; that 'he applied them with wisdom,' his admirers may contend, but how can it be said 'with success?' At the time, we heard much of "negative successes," and were told that "we had gained all that we had not lost:" but with this language the ears of posterity will never be insulted. Success in the old fashioned sense of the term, the sense which it bore in the days of Marlborough and Chatham, ill applies to the war of the late Premier.

To the praise which the speech bestows on the Union with Ireland, we give our full assent: but that measure, great, and wise, and meritorious as we hold it to have been, will avail little unless it is duly followed up. Most deeply do we regret that we seem destined to look to the reverse of advances in this respect.

Mr.

Mr. Tomline next refers to Mr. Pitt's secession from office. On that subject we profess ourselves to be somewhat sceptical; for the cause which he chose to assign for his retirement does not address itself to our judgment as the sole motive of his conduct on that occasion. The task of making peace, which in the actual circumstances he could not have much longer delayed, if it did not determine, we have no doubt greatly reconciled him to his plan of temporary abdication. He was glad to avoid the humiliation of ratifying terms so different from those which he long and confidently held out to the public as indispensible. "*Indemnity for the past, and security for the future,*" could not be the fruits of the war which he had waged. By his subsequent conduct, it appears evident that he regarded the new minister as his mere *locum tenens*; and when the latter refused to re-admit him into power on his own terms, what was his behaviour? The opprobrious language which Mr. Pitt then applied to him and his colleagues, when contrasted with the panegyric which he passed on them at their entrance into office, fixes a stain on his memory which no art, no hardihood, no industry, on the part of his defenders and admirers, will ever be able to expunge.

The great measure of emancipating catholics and dissenters, though not very consistent with the former professions of Mr. Pitt, was highly honourable to him, since it shewed that he was capable of correcting early erroneous opinions, and of adopting political views suited to the necessities of the times. We wish that the speech had imparted some particulars of his plan for this purpose to which it alludes: we think that the public at this moment has a right to such a communication; and we trust that it will not be withholden.

Adverting to Mr. Pitt's behaviour to Mr. Addington, while the latter was minister, the orator ascribes to the former 'a disinterestedness of which there is no other instance in the history of political parties.' It is here forgotten that Mr. Addington was much more indebted to the co-operation of Mr. Fox than to that of Mr. Pitt. Such was the friendship of the latter, that, while out of office, he rarely attended in his place in parliament; such was his 'disinterestedness,' that, on the first invitation from his antient *rival*, he united with him to overturn his extolled and favourite *protégé*; and, farther to shew this 'disinterestedness,' he turned to his own exclusive account all the benefits of this co-operation. It is here also asserted, 'that he did not obstruct the measures of the new administration, which must have instantly sunk under the weight of his opposition.' How favourable to the purposes of

panegyric is a treacherous memory! Can it be denied that the disinterested ex-minister divided against his old friends, in a memorable minority of fifty-six?

The administration of Mr. Addington and his colleagues is treated with considerable severity. It is asserted that

'The ministers soon betrayed their own weakness and incompetency. At this moment the commanding superiority of Mr. Pitt was universally felt, and unequivocally acknowledged: all former difference of opinion, all political animosity, was instantly buried in oblivion: the perilous situation of the country required the union of all the talents it possessed; and all parties, and all descriptions of persons concurred in expressing a wish to see Mr. Pitt at the head of this union. It is always considered as a strong testimony in favour of one of the most distinguished characters of antiquity, that his countrymen agreed in giving him their second vote of merit: but here all rivalry was laid aside, all competition was silenced; and the first place was with one voice yielded to Mr. Pitt. This deference was an infallible proof of what was really thought of his talents by his rivals and opponents, and of the principles upon which he had acted in the most arduous contest in which any nation was ever engaged. The failure of this plan to concentrate abilities and unite the divisions of party, exhibited the greatness of his character, if possible, in a still stronger point of view: for when disappointed of the assistance of the ablest and most powerful of those whom he had expected to be his colleagues in office, he not only resisted all opposition at home, and added considerably to our naval and military force, but also surmounted those obstacles which had hitherto prevented a junction of the different Powers upon the Continent. By his efforts, that Confederacy was formed, which, had it been properly directed, might have contributed to the deliverance of Europe; and its want of success was owing to causes over which he could have no controul. The merit of this last measure of Mr. Pitt's government is but too evident from the consequences its failure has produced; and the treaties will ever remain a monument of his political wisdom, and of the h gh estimation in which he was held in foreign courts.'

Properly to comment on this passage would require a volume. It is agreed, on all hands, that Mr. Pitt refused to be bound not to come into office except in conjunction with Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville: but, claiming to be thus free, he expressed his unqualified approbation of an administration uniting all parties, and undertook to recommend it to the sovereign. That he did recommend it, no one doubts: but in what manner he fulfilled this part of his engagement remains, we believe, very much a secret. The rest is well known. Availing himself of a crisis which he was as little capable of effecting by his sole exertions as his present eulogist, he hesitated not to secure to himself all the benefits of it; and his conduct towards his co-

adjutors

adjutors on this occasion, with the act of forming the imbecile cabinet at the head of which he placed himself, we regard as the unpardonable sin of his political life. The line of conduct which he pursued in this emergency, in our opinion, as much impeaches his patriotism, and affects his honour, as it arraigns his judgment. To his other errors, great as we hold some of them to have been, we can extend forgiveness; while this last offence, as it appears to us, admits of no apology. We feel no satisfaction in dwelling on this dark part of Mr. Pitt's history. *Invita in hoc loco versatur oratio.*—Of the Confederacy which, like every other of his measures, is here highly extolled, we shall only observe that it was more a mercantile transaction than a political atchievement. It was a money-bargain for the humiliation of a vast empire. It reversed the order of things, and assigned to gold the province of moral causes. The minister of finance was seen in it throughout, but we look in vain for any stroke in it which indicates the statesman. The consequences of the measure were anticipated by his illustrious rival, and distinctly pointed out to him: but neither these sage warnings, nor the experience of former failures, could make him pause; and he hurried on with ruinous haste. The event is notorious; his fame suffered; his country was depressed; his life fell a sacrifice; and his party was laid low.

Uniting with the admirers of Mr. Pitt in extolling him as a financier, a parliamentary leader, and a director of public opinion, we have already intimated our denial of his claim to skill and ability as a superintendant of the foreign concerns of a state. All his interferences on the continent were ill conceived, and all proved unsuccessful; they formed a series of expedients governed by no principle, and in which no system is visible. He sought remedies for the particular mischiefs, but never directed his efforts to the source from which they proceeded. While, however, in the management of foreign relations he even fell short of mediocrity, the solidity of his financial measures, his enlightened views in regard to commerce, his ascendancy over public opinion, that great measure of the Union with Ireland, and the grand plan of uniting all the subjects of the empire by common civil ties in the cause of the country, prove him to have possessed the highest qualifications for a domestic ruler. Equally well constituted, it might be shewn, was his great rival, for the functions of a minister of foreign affairs. We sometimes compliment ourselves with the denomination of a wise people; and had the executive and the nation possessed authority and energy sufficient to have employed these two extraordinary men in their respective proper lines, instead of suffering their

mighty talents to jar in eternal collision, to what degree might the prosperity and glory of the country have been advanced? Having failed in this obvious policy, however, let us abate somewhat of our conceit of national superiority.

Alluding as we have already done to the share said to be taken by a learned prelate in the delineation before us, it may reasonably be expected, from the connection, that we should quote some passages which refer principally to the character of Mr. Pitt rather as a man than a minister. We transcribe, therefore, the ensuing paragraphs; and we think that they clearly indicate the fact which we have stated. Indeed, if we detach them from this source, we divest them of their authority; and in ascribing them to the pencil of friendship, we account for and excuse the flattering colours which are employed.

'Mr. Pitt's severe and long-continued attention to the momentous concerns of the state, in no respect diminished his regard for literature, or abated the pleasure he derived from books. In his early years he had as it were an intuitive perception of the sense of an author; he at once unravelled the most involved construction, and caught the most obscure allusion. It was said by the instructor of his childhood, "He seemed not to learn, but to recollect." This youthful quickness, aided by unremitted application and a most retentive memory, was followed in maturer age by an accuracy, a depth, and extent of learning, which have been rarely equalled even in professed scholars. Such indeed was his fondness for classical reading throughout life, that he never failed to have at hand a Homer or a Demosthenes, a Virgil or a Horace. This was his favorite amusement when alone and at leisure.

'But with all his devotion to business and love of study, never was there a man who more fully enjoyed the society of his friends. Here he unbent his whole soul; here he displayed a vivacity of imagination, a brilliancy of wit, a certain ease, simplicity, playfulness and good humor, a delicacy of sentiment, and an attention to the feelings of others, which made him as much the object of private affection as he was of public confidence. His heart was formed for the sensibilities of friendship; and his manner, temper, and disposition were such, that it was impossible to know, and not to love him. Though in his public speeches he sometimes used the keenest invectives and most pointed sarcasms, in private he always spoke of his political opponents with mildness and candor; nor did he express himself with harshness even of those who deserted his cause upon the most unjustifiable grounds, or for the most dishonorable reasons: nay, such was the facility of his temper, that he was always desirous of finding an excuse or a palliation for the most unwarrantable conduct; and he was ever ready, perhaps too ready, upon the slightest acknowledgment, to receive again into his confidence those who had treated him with insincerity or ingratitude. No pressure of business, no untoward circumstance, no unfortunate event, disconcerted his natural cheerfulness. Resentment, peevishness, and

despond-

despondency, were feelings to which his mind was an utter stranger. He was uniformly supported under the various trials to which his situation exposed him, by a consciousness of having discharged his duty, and by a religious principle which never forsook him. To this influence we are to attribute that unshaken equanimity, which was the constant theme of admiration to those who had an opportunity of observing it, not merely in the busy moments of official occupation or the ordinary intercourse of social life, but in the retired hours of confidential and unreserved conversation. Through the most gloomy prospect, he always saw a ray of hope; under the most calamitous occurrence, he always pointed out some cause for comfort; and under the most unprovoked injury, he remained placid and undisturbed. No temptation, no inducement, no expectation of advantage, no apprehension of inconvenience, no fear of offence, not even the desire of gratifying those to whom he was most warmly attached or with whom he was most closely connected, could prevail upon him to do what he believed to be wrong, or divert him from doing what he believed to be right. Where morality or duty was concerned, his easiness of temper was changed into inflexible firmness. He dealt not in studied civilities or unmeaning professions; he made not a trade of courtesy: he was equally above those little arts and contrivances by which the applause of the people is too often courted. He had a certain μεγαλοψυχία a lofty spirit, an honorable disdain of every low and interested condescension, which with those who were unacquainted with his real character, or who chose to misunderstand it, sometimes subjected him to the imputation of pride. But while acting upon higher motives and with a far more noble object in view than private or public favor, he gained the unsolicited support and disinterested attachment of numerous individuals, and a degree and a continuance of popularity and confidence which no minister ever before enjoyed.'

Though we profess to think most highly of Mr. Pitt's oratorical powers, we cannot help regarding as extravagant the following description of them:

'His merits as an orator baffle all description. He must have been heard, or no adequate conception can be formed of his unrivalled talents. To the vigor and fire of Demosthenes, to the polished copiousness of Cicero, to the exuberant imagination of Burke, to the logical acuteness of Fox, he added a quickness and extent of comprehension, a sublimity of thought, a perspicuity of arrangement, a correctness of language, and an accuracy of judgment, which were peculiarly his own.'

Strongly coloured, however, as are the immediately succeeding sentences, they require little qualification to reduce them to correctness:

'His ideas appeared to flow with spontaneous promptitude: there was no pause, no repetition. Never could the alteration of a single word be wished; never was the train of reasoning interrupted by irrelevant digression, or his hearers wearied with minute prolixity.

He amplified the most barren, elucidated the most abstruse, and excited attention to the most uninteresting subjects. The energy and dignity of his manner gave irresistible influence to his commanding, yet always unpremeditated, speeches. His statements of his own measures were clear and forcible; but the powers of his eloquence were still more conspicuous in his animated replies to his antagonists. Concentrating into one view whatever had been advanced on the contrary side, he left no argument unanswered, no objection unrefuted; he removed every unfavourable impression from minds not blinded by party prejudice; he extorted reluctant admiration from his opponents, and astonished even those whom he did not convince.'

We cannot refrain from offering some additional observations on Mr. Pitt's claims as an orator: but we have not the presumption to attempt a full and accurate estimate of them, and shall content ourselves with throwing out some observations that may assist others to execute the undertaking.

Mr. Pitt's early speeches are highly declamatory; while those of his more mature years stand distinguished, where the subject admits of it, for a strain of argumentation most peculiarly forcible. By a matchless strength of reasoning, rather than by original or striking thoughts, those addresses are characterized to which he owed his parliamentary ascendancy. In the arts or rather the artifices of oratory, he, perhaps, never had an equal. When it was his lot to endeavour "to make the worse appear the better reason," he was able to roll out sentence after sentence, which never failed to charm the ear, though the understanding could affix no meaning to them; and never did any man know so well how to be unintelligible. His speech proceeded, his air was confident, his tones were lofty, his diction was splendid, but the most discerning were unable to collect any information from the eloquent sounds to which they listened with admiration. By nothing did he more astonish than by the facility with which he threw into method the exquisite matter which formed the speeches of his illustrious rival. It was a practice common to both, when re-stating the positions of an opponent, to strengthen rather than weaken them: but, in the case of arguments which did not admit of refutation, it was the successful though hacknied stratagem of Mr. Pitt to advert to collateral matters, and either to confine the controversy to them, or not to recur to the strong points of his adversary's case till attention had become wearied, and till the audience was little on its guard against the sophisms and subterfuges to which it was necessary to have recourse. It was a peculiarity of his oratory to be most striking and impressive in the beginning of a speech, which often occasioned the close to be comparatively

flat

flat and languid. This was a great fault; and it is singular enough that neither his own reflections, nor hints from friends, ever suggested to him the expediency of a contrary course. When circumstances happened to make him sparing of his energies at his outset, and he increased in force as he advanced, the effect was indeed grand. Nothing could be more imposing than his short speeches; and in these he had no rival.

Between the two great men who so fairly balanced each other, while they so far excelled the rest of mankind, and who were so long the ornaments of the senate and the country, we shall not institute a laboured comparison: but we cannot avoid referring to a few points of contrast. The superiority of Mr. Pitt in the arts of oratory admits of no question: but, as to the substance, we think that the advantage was as clearly with his opponent. Mr. Pitt's pre-eminence was chiefly founded on rhetorical accomplishments, while that of Mr. Fox arose out of the excellence of his matter. By the young and the less cultivated, Mr. Pitt was held to be the superior: but the more matured and the more refined gave the preference to Mr. Fox. When we heard Mr. Pitt, we acknowleged the superlative orator: when we listened to Mr. Fox, the soul was more engaged, and we felt persuaded that, if Wisdom herself had undertaken to speak to men, she would have borrowed the words and the ideas of the British senator.

All the qualities of Mr. Pitt's nature were grand, and to these he added many of the amiable. He stood certainly in the first class of human beings. Ambition, a high sense of honour*, and personal purity, were the predominant principles of his conduct: but, like men of similar extraordinary powers, he fell into the error of regarding the state as more made for him than he for the state. His political virtue was not of the rigid sort; for expediency was his rule of action; and if we try him by the maxims of strict patriotism, his pretensions appear to be by no means high, since, in order to acquire and to retain power, scarcely any sacrifices were by him deemed too costly. To speak of the shelter which he afforded to Indian corruption, of his chicane in regard to parliamentary reform and the slave trade, of his protection of delinquency at home, and of the formation of his last cabinet, would be to advert to lesser blemishes, of which the catalogue will be found very large. The extravagant praises of the moment weigh but lightly in our balance. They are calculated to serve a purpose

* On this point, however, we must refer to the remarks in p. 87. of this article.

Let us grant that he was a splendid object: but let us not be dazzled by the glare which surrounds him; and while we bear willing testimony to his excellencies, let us not shut our eyes upon his faults. When we hear him represented as the most consummate and most upright of statesmen, we cannot unite in this testimony until we sever from the character of the statesman the controul of foreign affairs; until we efface from memory his lavish distribution of the honours of the state, and his profuse expenditure of the public treasures; until we forget his aggrandizement of our enemy; and until we are become insensible to the rude shocks which, during his government, were given to some of the vital principles of the British constitution.

Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MAY, 1807.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 14. *Werneria, (Part the Second) or, Short Characters of Earths and Minerals:* according to Klaproth, Kirwan, Vauquelin, and Hauy. With Tables of their Genera, Species, Primitive Crystals, Specific Gravity, and component Parts. By Terræ Filius Philagricola, (Rev. Stephen Weston.) 12mo. pp. 106. 4s. 6d. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1806.

We announced the first part of this singular performance in the 49th volume of our New Series, p. 99. and the remarks which we then hazarded seem to be equally applicable to the present continuation, which celebrates the metals. A few of the more recently discovered of the latter are dismissed in humble prose. but the information thus conveyed will not be less acceptable to the scientific reader. From the annotations on silver, we are tempted to extract the ensuing passage:

'Silver is furnished from the mines of Peru and Mexico. It is found too at Konsberg in Norway, at Furstemberg, and Johngeorgenstadt, and Freyberg in Germany, at which last place the amalgamation is performed in infinitely less time, and with less loss of mercury than in America, where it takes a month, with a loss in each operation of 25lbs of mercury in the hundred weight, and yet a part of the silver is left in the ore. At Freyberg the operation is finished in 24 hours, with the loss only of half an ounce of mercury. and a small quantity of silver is obtained, not indicated in the cupellation of the assayer. The greatest mass of this metal is said by Albinus, in his Chronicle of the Mines of Misnia, to have been found at Schneeberg in 1478; it weighed by computation about four hundred quintals.—Albert de Saxe, who went down into the mine to see this monster, dined upon the enormous block, and observed to the company, that the emperor Frederic is a powerful monarch, but he does not

not keep so rich a table as I do. Agricola, who wrote after the death of Albert upon the spot, says, that he never found any one who knew the exact weight of this rock of silver. This metal, when fused and suffered to cool slowly, produces arborisations like gold, composed of octohedrons heaped on one another, and piled pyramidally. Silver gets completely tarnished when exposed to sulphureous and inflammable vapours. The French crowns hid in the latrines during the revolution came out quite black. The sound of silver is clearer and more open than that of other metals, and more pleasing to the ear, and noticed as more agreeable by the poets.

'And the press'd watch return'd a silver sound.' POPE.'

Though the author has undoubtedly the merit of reducing many important mineralogical facts into a narrow compass, we cannot highly compliment him on the improved harmony of his numbers. What ear, that is at all familiar with English versification, can tolerate such harsh and prosaic lines as the following?

'Unchang'd in colour, but add to iron.'
'Tis from this dense opacity metals.'
'Draw out, but separate, not adhering.'
'Without metalic brilliance, as certain
Bits of silver red, and the brown oxyd
Of crystal – Tin.'
'Or air expos'd, but by agitation.'
'With different acids when to an oxyd
Brought, it readily combines, if set free
From these, whate'er's thrown down with sulphur mix'd.'
'Than gold less ductile, and than iron less hard.'
'And as iron too almost as hard to fuse.'
'Cobalt less than bismuth weighs, ready is.'

The earths, which are shortly explained in the supplement to the first part, are, *Moroxit*, *Allochroit*, *Anthophyllit*, *Fuscit*, *Hepatit*, *Actinose Hepatit*, *Cryolite*, *Coccolite*, *Sahlit*, *Spodumene*, *Nepheline*, *Aphrixit*, *Bergmannit*, *Conit*, *Datholite*, *Zirconit*, and *Muriacite* —The tables are constructed with neatness and precision, according to the methods of the German, French, and English mineralogists.

Muir.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 15. *The beneficial Effects of the Christian Temper on Domestic Happiness.* 8vo. pp. 91. 2s. Hatchard. 1807.

This tract is intended as a kind of Supplement to the Bishop of London's work on "the beneficial Effects of Christianity on the temporal concerns of Mankind," (see the last Number of our Review, p. 366.) the author being desirous not only of asserting the divine spirit of the Gospel for the conviction of infidels, but of bringing home to *christians themselves* some practical considerations which arise out of the subject. He first displays the duties of a Christian in the domestic relations of Parents and Children, Brothers and Sisters, Husbands and Wives. In justice to the Ladies, he allows that 'the scale of virtue generally preponderates on the female side:' but, as this is

not

not always the case, he deems it not amiss to offer this general summary of the duties of a Christian Wife:

'Constant subjection to her Husband, in every thing which is not inconsistent with her duty to her MAKER; the highest respect for his character and conduct, to the utmost extent she can preserve it; forbearance with his faults, follies, and failings; mildness and cheerfulness in her manners and conversation; and a minute attention to every article connected with his happiness, comfort, and interests; regular precepts and example, to train his children and servants in the paths of holiness, and daily prayers to Heaven for his welfare, and grace to perform the duties of a good and Christian Wife.'

Addressing himself to Husbands, the author tells them that men are in the habit of expecting too great perfection in their wives: but they must be very unreasonable indeed if they expect more than he instructs them it is their duty to display.—That Husbands, however, may not be deficient on their part, the following exhortation is subjoined:

'Let a Husband therefore who would possess himself, and communicate to his Wife, that happiness with which PROVIDENCE has blessed the married state, attend to all those rules of Christian equity, which subdue selfishness in the human breast; let him consider his Wife as a part of himself; and make her comfort, interest, and character, equally dear to him with his own; let him treat her with tenderness, gentleness, and attention, administering his reproofs with candour and indulgence, and with the sole view of her happiness and improvement: always feeling and expressing the highest value for her virtues, and approbation of her good conduct.—Let him comfort her in sickness and distress, protect her from injury and calumny, and conscientiously discharge the duties he promised at the altar in the presence of THE ALMIGHTY, to love, comfort, and cherish her.'

Having dismissed these domestic duties, the author proceeds to consider the Christian character in its relation to society at large; represents humility as an essential ingredient; and exhibits its magnanimity of conduct under injuries and oppressions, and its superior consolations in the view of death. Thus it is shewn, in accordance with the assertion of the Apostle, that "Godliness, on the Christian plan, has the promise of the life that now is as well as of that which is to come."

Mo.y.

Art. 16. *The Lord Jesus Christ's Sermon on the Mount*: With a Course of Questions and Answers, explaining that valuable passage of Scripture, and intended chiefly for the Instruction of young Persons. By the Rev. John Eyton. 12mo. 1s. Hatchard. &c.

Publications for the use of young persons are now become so exceedingly numerous, that a very good reason ought to be assigned for adding to their number. Mr. Eyton appears to have been actuated by a laudable desire of benefiting the rising generation: but we do not think that his pamphlet was necessary; nor that his explanations of our Saviour's Sermon on the Mount are either adapted to the pure undoctrinal morality of the discourse, or suited to form the

first

first elements of religious instruction. Young persons need not to be initiated into the language of controversial divinity. Mo.y.

Art. 17. *A faithful Account of an important Trial in the Court of Conscience.* By J. Jamieson, D.D. F.R. and A.SS. Edin. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed Williams and Smith.

"*I have used similitudes,*" says John Bunyan in his Pilgrim's Progress, and Dr. Jamieson may apply the same motto to this 'faithful account,' &c. in which, according to old-fashioned Allegory, we are told of Mr. *Peccator*, who, being brought on a charge of High Treason, in the Court of Conscience, has the following persons nominated as the Jury to try the indictment:—'Mr. *Self-commune* of Heart-street, Mr. *Try-all* of Leaven-lane, Mr. *Weigh well* of Balance-place, Mr. *Long silent* of Peace-row, Mr. *New-awake* of Storm-hill, Mr. *Sense of-guilt* of Menace-court, Mr. *Recollection* of Old-street, Mr. *Micaiah* of Ahab square, Mr. *Sharp-arrow* of Law-place, Mr. *Fear-death* of Golgotha, Mr. *Flee-from-wrath* of Jordan-vale, and Mr. *Judgment-to-come* of Allsouls-town.' The witnesses produced on the trial are personages of the same allegorical cast; and they who have a taste for such kind of reading may be amused by Dr. J.'s dexterity in thus depicting the *guilt*, *conviction*, and *conversion* of a sinner, or of a *Saul* transformed to a *Paul:* but, having out-grown our partiality for the *Pilgrim's Progress*, we now *put away* writings of this description as *childish things*. D.o

Art. 18. *The Christian Mirror*, exhibiting some of the Excellencies and Defects of the Religious World. Large 12mo. pp. 285. 5s. Boards. Williams and Smith.

Twenty-seven essays, in prose and verse, here invite the attention of the reader. The author aims at an imitation of the *Spectators*, so justly celebrated in English literature; and though he proceeds not *æquis passibus*, he displays sense and just observation, united with lively and entertaining remarks. We cannot but approvet he design, to divert us from the mere forms, pretences, and appearances of religion, and lead us to regard its real, genuine, and prevailing influence on the heart and behaviour: yet the whole has more of the methodistical cast than is acceptable to us.—To give some idea, however, of the author's manner, let us extract the following lines from the first or introductory paper:

'A friend of mine, remarkable for the wholesome, not disgusting, plainness of his manners, and respected for the solidity of his judgment, was one day in company with persons of a more fashionable turn, who entertained themselves by discussing the question—"whether it is most difficult to enter into company, or to leave it, with a becoming grace?"—The opposite sides of this question were supported by their respective advocates, until at length, unable to settle the point, they agreed to refer it to my friend; who observed, that he had never considered the subject; adding with a shrewd look, peculiar to himself, "I have been always persuaded that the manner of entering into companies, or taking leave of them, would not be of so much importance as to render myself agreeable and useful to them while we were together.'

We

We might fix on corresponding illustrations of the familiar kind: but this is sufficient to convey an idea of the writer's custom and method.—In one essay, we find him very properly censuring the practice of *punning*, in the phraseology of Scripture, and reprehending preachers who endeavour to surprize the audience by very uncouth texts; to which might be added strange or vulgar expressions, chiefly confined in the present day to the more illiterate among our numerous sects, or to that methodistical class for whom he particularly pleads. In another place, he castigates, with becoming ardour, the levity too frequently observable in the assemblies of public worship. In his farther progress, we have a tolerable attempt at allegory, of which christianity is the subject: but when the writer proceeds to insert particular names of later date, and adds to the list Whitfield and Wesley, as principal workmen or master-builders, we perceive the strong symptoms of a particular bias, and attend him with little satisfaction. **Hi.**

Art. 19. *Horæ Psalmodicæ*; or a popular view of the Psalms of David, as Evidence of the Divine Origin of the Jewish and Christian Religions: to which are prefixed Two Essays, I. On Religion—II. On Libertinism. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1807.

The author of this modest volume announces himself to be a layman, who presumes not to rank with biblical scholars, but merely attempts the edification of the general reader. As far as practical utility is concerned, this work merits our recommendation; since it enforces on the attention of the Christian the beautifully prominent features of the book of Psalms respecting the Unity, Spirituality, Holiness, and Providence of the Deity, and notices the supposed references which it contains to the Christian dispensation. The passages on which comments are offered are taken from the old version, which is to be lamented, since the Bible Version is so much more elegant and correct.

In the first essay prefixed to this volume, the author exhibits those ideas of Religion in general, and of the nature and importance of Christianity, which prove him to have reflected seriously and soundly on these momentous subjects; and in the last he is the strenuous advocate of a virtuous connection between the sexes: reprobating fornication and concubinage as equally fatal to the comfort, the happiness, and the morals of society.

This layman's mode of interpreting Scripture language is more rational and defensible than that of some divines. We shall quote a passage in reference to a subject on which we have recently animadverted:

'If in one place, a doctrine is proposed in language so figurative, that a literal interpretation would render it absurd; if in another, the doctrine, taken without limitation, would offend our sense of common justice and obvious truth, or militate against other declarations of Scripture, the figure must be considered a figure, the general language must be qualified, and both be construed by honest common sense, with due advertance to local allusions and modes of speaking; to the circumstances and occasion of the speech; and above all, to the *general* import and tendency of the Gospel itself.

'I would

'I would instance in the cases of those images in which the future rewards and punishments of mankind are announced: These are, from their subject, eminently interesting and awful; but they are as remarkably figurative and general. As these images themselves essentially vary, some conveying ideas of perpetual consciousness and acute suffering, while others express extinction of thought and being; and some are so absolutely metaphorical, as to describe the *place* of punishment by the local appellation of *Gehenna*, (a spot in the neighbourhood of Jerusalem, formerly dedicated to the idol of Moloch;) as the duty enjoined or scene described, in conjunction with these threats, is also conveyed in language undeniably figurative, as these images suppose no *gradation* of reward or punishment, (expressly stated, however, in other parts of the New Testament) and omit the obvious *limitations* and exceptions (elsewhere intimated) arising from ignorance, surprise, repentance, forgiveness of injuries, &c.; common sense surely requires us to construe the images, in which a future state is drawn, with a latitude of interpretation proportioned to that we allow to the imagery in which the duty or scene immediately connected with them is displayed. No one, for example, supposes we are actually bound to cut off our hands, or pluck out our eyes, (though, *literally*, this is enjoined) or that such a precise conversation will be held between the Saviour and mankind at the Day of Judgement, as described in the passages alluded to;—equally figurative therefore may we consider the language that ensues, regarding the precise nature of a future state; from which we can only with certainty gather (in connection with other parts of Scripture, and conformably to Reason) that happiness awaits the good, and misery the wicked, *in proportion* to their respective merits and crimes: And that perfect justice, tempered with perfect mercy, will pass the final sentence on each.'

If Mr. Winter be not convinced by our friendly expostulations that he has overstrained the meaning of Scripture in his late sermon on the Everlasting Torments of Hell, (see our last volume, pages 335, 447.) we recommend this layman's explanation to his attention. Mo-y.

Art. 26. *The Old Testament illustrated:* being Explications of remarkable Facts and Passages in the Jewish Scriptures, which have been objected to by Unbelievers, and the proper Understanding of which may be rendered conducive to a farther Acquaintance with the Christian Dispensation: in a Series of Lectures to Young Persons. By Samuel Parker. 12mo. pp. 380. 6s. Boards. Vidler.

The editor of this work steps forth in the character of a humble compiler: but this is nevertheless a character which requires industry, judgment, and impartiality, whatever may be the chosen topic, and they are peculiarly necessary on the subjects here brought under discussion. The venerable Jewish Scriptures are sometimes treated with supercilious neglect, by those who are destitute of ability to justify such disregard. The objections which may be made have employed learned and skilful pens, either for their removal or their mitigation; and such are the marks of veracity and fidelity which these

antient writings still bear, such their simplicity, and such their excellent tendency and design, that they have a rational claim to respectful attention, and may maintain their general credibility and authority, even though some difficulties and objections should arise which are now invincible and unanswerable. In perusing the contents of this compilation, the reader will not be amused by mere slight and trivial remarks, but will meet with such as are calculated to lessen if not entirely to remove his difficulties, and to yield much satisfaction to an intelligent and candid inquirer. We observe that in commenting on the regress of the shadow on the Sun dial of Ahaz, a particular notice is taken of the ingenious remarks of Rosenmuller, to which we were led to give some attention by a sermon lately published by the Rev. G. A. Thomas, LL.D.* It is supposed that 'by the refraction of a cloud, the shadow of the gnomon was turned back to the hour and half preceding.' After his reference to different writers, Mr. Parker himself adds: 'Though, my young friends, we cannot *certainly* say, what was the cause of the regress of the shadow, yet it does not seem reasonable to think that there was any change in the earth's rotation to produce it. This would probably have been attended with inconvenience to the inhabitants of the earth. Besides, a change in the shadow of the sun seems all which may be fairly inferred from the history, and all which was necessary, whatever may be deemed the *peculiar cause* of that change.'—In the appendix, we find some farther remarks on Abraham's offering of his Son: they are occasioned 'by a little work written by a Jew†, who insists that if the passage is rightly considered it will soon appear that the Lord never ordered Abraham to sacrifice his son Isaac.'—We cannot, at present, derive any permanent satisfaction from the assertions or criticism of this writer: but there is probably some mistake respecting *the age of* Isaac, at the time when Abraham was requested to consent to such a testimony of his resignation to all the commands of Heaven.

Hi.

POETRY.

Art. 21. *The Wild Harp's Murmurs*, or Rustic Strains. By D. Service. 12mo. pp. 92. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The author of the present collection belongs to that numerous class of versifiers who, unfortunately for themselves and for the public, mistake the art of rhyming for poetry.—In the former, Mr. S. is tolerably expert: but he appears to be an entire stranger to that genius and taste, without which the latter can have no existence.

J. Man. jun

Art. 22. *Gr—lle Agonistes.* A dramatic Poem. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1807.

This satiricial squib at the late administration opens with a soliloquy of Lord G. (the scene, Dropmore Park,) in which, half delirious, he vents the complainings of his mortified soul. Ho—ck then introduces himself, and endeavours to soothe his noble friend's grief:

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* See M. Rev. for May, 1804, vol. 44, N.S. p. 109, 110.

† Israel Lyons, sen. Teacher of the Hebrew tongue in the University of Cambridge, 1768.

bi t,

but, like a Job's comforter, he only 'makes the matter worse;' and the Ex-ministers are so heartily disgusted with each other, that mutual reproaches exclude all compliment and civility. The poetry is often as rough as the dialogue, in which the interlocutors "make sport" by throwing dirt at each other. Ho—ck is so exasperated by the reflections cast on himself and party as Jacobinical, that he makes *g.* gallop after *g.* in *giving out his gall:*

'Go, greedy, grasping, graceless Gr—lle go.'

The poet contends that he has only restored these noble peers to their former hatred of each other.

We need scarcely say that this effusion is partly an imitation of Milton's Samson Agonistes: but if we think little of the writer's *political* boldness, how shall we characterize his *poetic* daring? The reader may accept a specimen.

'GR—LLE.—I rais'd ye up, and, to my cost and hurt,
Soil'd, nay, begrim'd with democratic dirt,
Wash'd all your faces, par'd your nasty nails,
(Heav'n knows what pains I took with Laud———le's!)
Made ye hold up your heads, turn out your toes,
And, though all cropt, appear in full-dress clo'es;
Then led ye, marshall'd with my sole support,
Long banish'd, once more, to behold the court.
'Twas said, I grant, your talents might be tried,
But all the confidence was on my side;
For who, but I, could thus have cramm'd ye down
The gulping throats of country, court, and town?
Against my better judgment, your wild plans
I follow'd, and they prov'd—*Catamarans*;
Then held the match myself, and dropt the spark
That blew us all up in one fated bark.
Yet, ere this hap'd, F—x met the foe's advance,
And treating once more was the dupe of France;
Help'd her with means to execute and push on
Her deep designs upon the Russ and Prussian.
Shifting his ground, and shewing what deceit 'tis
T' expect from thieves a *Uti Possidetis*,
He quite o'erlook'd this basis just and grand,
"*We hold the Sea, if you possess the Land.*"
Say was it wise, nay commonly discreet,
Amongst us to let Wynd—m have a seat?
He, who has set together by the ears,
Army, militia, mass, and volunteers:
Bad as it was, who made the matter worse,
By *in* or *ill* disposing all our force;
Who, like the conju'rer Cadmus, (Earth their mother,)
Saw all his new recruits destroy each other;
Such olios cook'd of ables, and unables,
Of willing conscripts, watch'd by constables,
That Bedlam, hearing of her Wynd—m tell,
Astonish'd, stares upon his vacant cell.'

Moy.

TRAVELS.

Art. 23. *A Descriptive Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland*, in the Autumn of 1804. 12mo. pp. 172. 4s. sewed. Ostell. 1806.

Perhaps no species of writing sooner palls on the mind of the reader than continuous description; and few descriptions are more insipid than those which are deficient in expression and faithful discrimination of features. Notwithstanding the moderate size of his volume, this anonymous rambler has certainly contrived to fatigue us by the frequency of unappropriate scenery; various portions of which might, with equal justice, be applied to the romantic landscape of any hilly country. When his observations, however, refer to human character, we are conscious of the interest which they are calculated to excite.

In a profound marginal note, it is gravely insinuated that *Wrynose* may be deduced from Ουρανος, on account of its height; and that *Skiddaw* probably owes its origin to Σκια, for "shadows, clouds, and darkness rest upon it."—This is *twisting* and *overshadowing* poor tortured etymology with a vengeance.

Of the author's style, we have to remark that it is generally trim and correct, but that it sometimes borders on quaintness or inflation. He writes pages of fine expressions and well poised sentences with apparent ease: but when we have perused them, the shadowy ideas which they had conjured up have taken wing, and, instead of transporting us for a season to verdant banks and fairy bowers, immediately restore us to the dull reality of our own huge and antique table, scarcely equal to sustain its load. Though our tourist has not unmercifully added to the latter, we beg leave to remind him that the abundance of Guides and Tours to the Lakes of Cumberland might have superseded his labour, without materially affecting the interests of the public.

Muir.

POLITICS.

Art. 24. *Substance of the Speech of Lord Viscount Sidmouth*, upon the Motion of the Marquis of Stafford, in the House of Lords, April 13, 1807. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

This Speech merits notice on account of its including what may be called a history of the Catholic bill in the Cabinet, and of the measures which led to the late changes in administration: but it should be read in conjunction with the speeches of Lords Grenville and Howick, who have been equally unreserved in their communications on the same delicate subject. We do not understand Lord Sidmouth, when he says that the King was restrained from acceding to the proposed measure by his view of the obligations imposed on him in his Coronation oath, and yet afterward he denies the assertion of another noble Lord, that "the obstacle to the wishes of the Catholics was to be found in the honourable and conscientious feelings of the King."

Mo.y.

Art. 25. *Observations on the Doctrines advanced during the late Elections*, in a Letter to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. from Henry Clifford, Esq. 8vo. pp. 103. 3s. 6d. Budd. 1807.

We

We have here a correct and learned statement of the attempts to lessen the influence of the crown in the House of Commons: but, mixed with and by the side of this investigation, are to be found propositions of frantic extravagance. At the epoch of writing this pamphlet, (in February last,) the author and many others were industriously exerting themselves to strip of public confidence the persons then in power: they are now private men; and this gentleman and his associates have perhaps succeeded beyond their wishes. Whether they exult in their atchievement, and whether they are prepared to transfer to the new administration, the confidence of which they assisted to bereave the late servants of the crown, we shall learn from the report of time. We do not think that the consideration of the country abroad, economy at home, or the security of our liberties, have been much advanced by the co-operation which these vehement friends of freedom gave, undesignedly, to those who at present sway our public councils. In most instances, the overthrow of liberty has been owing to the unnatural union of its own zealous and injudicious partizans with those who were covertly meditating designs against it. Will nations ever deserve the epithet of wise! We cannot discern that our own has any right to arrogate to itself that distinction. The American-cry, and the French-Revolution-cry, have occasioned the unparalleled burthens which press with such weight on our shoulders; and we may be assured that the luxury of the Popery-cry, which is not the least wanton of the three, will prove in the end to have been a very costly one. The symptoms of it already appear. Jo.

Art. 26. *Observations on (what is called) the Catholic Bill.* With a Copy of the Bill. By a Lawyer. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Measures for promoting unity and co-operation are always found to be wise in practice, but are subject from their very nature to great opposition. The Catholic Bill, which has occasioned so much confusion in the state, had for its object the consolidation of the national force for the national defence; yet it has excited an alarm as if it threatened the immediate subversion of the Constitution. The senseless cry of "No Popery" has been raised and disseminated with disgraceful zeal, and in some places the effects have been alarming. The 'Lawyer' before us objects to the bill, not on the ground of favouring Popery, but because it tended to *new-model* the army and navy by opening them 'to persons who have no religion at all, and by making them a class of persons wholly distinct from those in civil offices.' He insinuates that the true end of the Bill, (which he terms most *Antichristian,*) is 'to seduce the Catholic and the Presbyterian into a *comprehension*, which may possibly end in destroying their Church together with our own.' Are these fears well founded? Or could the authors of the bill be suspected of such intentions? Is it necessary that a person must be of the same religion with his Majesty, in order to be loyal to him, or to fight for him? Or does not the present state of the navy and army prove the contrary? The view which this Lawyer gives of the Bill, as 'releasing the army and navy from the practice and profession of Christianity', is in our judgment most preposterous. Must a man have no religion because, on his admission to a civil or military office, he is not obliged to declare his

faith? As well may we say that a young man, on being bound apprentice, is released from the practice and profession of Christianity, because his religious creed is not inserted in his indentures. In short, none of the reasoning in this pamphlet appears to us well founded; yet it is not unpopular. *Tant pis.* Mo-y.

Art. 27. *A Dialogue between Buonaparte and Talleyrand,* on the Subject of Peace with England. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

Talleyrand is the chief speaker in this little dialogue; and he advises his Imperial master to endeavour to obtain a peace with England, as the most effectual means of hostility, and of ultimately accomplishing his inveterate purposes against this country. It is urged that Peace, while it would enable France to rebuild her navy, regain her colonies, and restore her commerce, would be fatal to the revenues, trade, and prosperity of England; and that, when France had recovered from her naval disasters, 'a third Punic war would complete the destruction of the modern Carthage.'—This is certainly one view of the subject: but, if it be admitted in its whole extent, the smiles of peace can never return. Though, however, some truth exists in these representations, they are counteracted by others of a different nature. With peace the whole of Europe may assume another attitude; France may relax in martial spirit, and, by alliances, her power may be curtailed; our enemies may learn the policy of peace; and the states of Europe may concur in measures less destructive of human happiness than those which have lately been pursued. All politicians are aware of the difficulties which at present obstruct the return of tranquillity; and should a future opening for negotiation occur, it is to be hoped that our ministers, being apprized of the situation of the two countries, will not sheath the sword inconsiderately, nor sleep at their posts even in a period of peace. Do

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 28. *A Treatise on Hernia Humoralis,* or Swelled Testicle; to which are added Remarks on Opacity of the Cornea, elucidated by Cases. By Thomas Luxmoore, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. &c. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Highley. 1806.

After an account of the anatomy of the testicle, and the parts connected with it, the author considers the nature of the inflammatory affection to which the term of *Hernia Humoralis* has been applied. In his opinion, it consists in a simple inflammation of the part, unattended with any thing specific in its nature, and which may be produced by any cause irritating the testis, or the urethra. When it occurs after the disappearance of a gonorrhœa, he supposes that it depends on the action of those circumstances which have stopped the discharge. It is not easy to determine in what way the disease is propagated from the urethra to the testicle; he thinks that it cannot be caused by its gradually passing along the ducts, because frequently one of the testicles only is affected, and the inflammation often passes rapidly from one to the other of them. He therefore refers it to that acknowleged although unaccountable principle in the human constitution, by which the metastasis of a disease is effected from one part to another with which it has no obvious con-

nection.—For the cure of swelled teeticle, Mr Laxmoore regards general bleeding as in most cases absolutely necessary; and when from any particular circumstance it is contra-indicated, he advises the use of digitalis. Emetics have been of undoubted service; although it is confessed that their operation cannot be explained. With respect to the local treatment, the author prefers scarification to leeches, and recommends the application of cold in the commencement of the complaint: but he apprehends that it may afterward be injurious. The use of opium and mercury he condemns.

The opacity of the cornea, which forms the subject of the second part of the treatise, is caused by an effusion of lymph, which generally takes place between the cornea and the conjunction. The grand object in the cure is to promote the absorption of the lymph; and this is to be most effectually accomplished by diminishing the action of the arteries: for which purpose, Mr. L. strongly recommends topical bleeding, which is best performed by free incisions on the inside of the eyelids. In this operation consists the peculiarity of Mr. Luxmoore's practice; and it appears to be so far founded on rational principles, as to deserve a full trial of its effects. The cure is farther promoted by the use of stimulating and astringent applications; such as preparations of white vitriol, tincture of opium, camphor, corrosive sublimate, and the lunar caustic; and together with these topical means, advantage may be obtained from an alterative course of calomel and antimony. **Bos.**

Art. 29. *Observations, &c. on the Epidemic Disease which lately prevailed at Gibraltar:* intended to illustrate the Nature of Contagious Fevers in general. By Seguin Henry Jackson, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 5s. boards. Murray. 1806.

Dr. Jackson was induced to turn his attention to the subject of fever, in consequence of the disease which lately produced such fatal effects at Gibraltar. In the course of his inquiries, he was led to regard it in a point of view somewhat different from that in which it has been generally placed, and to form some new opinions respecting the nature of fever in general. It is the object of the present work to develop these doctrines, and he proposes to do this in the following order:

'The first part will embrace general observations on the science of medicine, and on the present opinions of febrile and sensorial pathology. The second part will comprise such communications, with occasional remarks, as have already been received on the particular subject of the late Gibraltar fever. The third part will consist of commentaries on those communications, and on the treatment of the said disorder, in the light both of an ordinary pestilential distemper, and in the way the author has conceived of it, namely, as an epidemic phrenitis, or brain fever. The fourth part will particularly have in view practical observations on the whole; with indications appropriate to the future prevention and cure of such a truly local, or phlegmasial, disease. Of this plan the profession and the public are to be the judges. To their adjudication it is most humbly submitted; and if by the practice and reflections of others hereafter, the opinions now thrown out should be established,

blished, by future trials and experience, the author will feel much satisfaction at having ventured to submit them to the gradual consideration of posterity.'

The present publication extends only to the first part of the above plan, on which account we shall not enter into a detailed view of its merits. From the above quotation, the sentiments of the author may be collected on two important points; first, that he considers the Gibraltar fever as not contagious, and 2dly, that he regards the disease as ultimately depending on an inflamed state of the brain, or its membranes. In the first idea he is supported by many great authorities, but the second opinion appears to us altogether novel. We deem it premature, however, to make any remarks on these points while the treatise is in so imperfect a state; since their proof must, in a great measure, depend on the documents which the author may adduce in the 2d part.

At present, then, confining our observations to the composition of the work, of which the part that is already published affords a sufficient specimen, we are obliged to confess that this specimen does not appear to us very favorable. The style is obscure, and the arrangement confused. Dr. Jackson does not possess the art of abstracting the sentiments of the authors to whom he refers, and of placing them before his readers in a concise and perspicuous form; an art which is absolutely necessary for a writer whose object is not to give original information, but to comment on the productions of others. From this defect, Dr. J. appears in several instances to contradict himself: in one section he seems to be a Cullenian, and in the next he writes like a disciple of Brown. He is also too fond of bringing in extraneous matter, which has no relation to the point in discussion, and is in itself frequently uninteresting. These faults, however, are not of the first magnitude; they do not affect the merit of his reasoning, nor the value of the facts which he may hereafter adduce in support of it. We are indeed disposed to augur favorably of the author's diligence in the investigation of his subject, and of his candor in examining the different controverted points that must necessarily fall under his discussion; so that, although we cannot highly commend the portion which we have already perused, we look forwards with a degree of interest to the remaining parts of the treatise. **Bos.**

Art. 30. *On Epilepsy, and the Use of the Viscus Quercinus*, or Misletoe of the Oak, in the Cure of that Disease. By Henry Fraser, M. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Highley. 1806.

We opened this volume with considerable scepticism, which, we confess, has not been diminished by a perusal of it. Among the numerous remedies that have been offered to the public as specifics for the cure of different diseases, so very few have maintained their reputation, that we are naturally apprehensive of similar failure in every new instance. Besides this general feeling of distrust, the present case affords especial grounds for caution in forming our determination. Epilepsy, although one of the most intractable diseases which invades the human frame when in its genuine state, is counterfeited by other affections of a much less formidable nature:

whence it happens that we have numerous histories, supported by the best testimony, of epileptic patients being cured by remedies which are either insignificant, or which can at best only operate through the medium of the imagination. We have also strong grounds for objecting to the nature of the substance recommended in this treatise. We can have little reason to expect powerful effects from a vegetable substance, which has but weak sensible properties, and no immediate operation on any of the animal functions. If we mistake not, this rule may be adopted almost without exception; and it must require a powerful argument to induce us to depart from so strong an analogy. Nevertheless, medicine is, to a certain extent, an experimental science; and it would be in the highest degree unphilosophical to permit any preconceived opinion to weigh against a fair induction from fact.

Dr. Fraser states that, after having examined with attention the accounts of epilepsy which are given by a variety of authors, he has found none so accurate as that of Dr. Cullen; which he accordingly takes as the basis of his work. He shews his judgment by this procedure. Cullen was an original genius, who drew his descriptions of disease from the book of nature; and, except in a few instances, when he was perverted by hypothesis, he may be followed without reserve. We do not think, however, that the same praise can be extended to his theories; which, though perhaps less exceptionable than those of his predecessors, will probably share the same fate. Dr. F. no doubt entertains a different opinion, since he confidently proceeds to theorise on the subsect of epilepsy, and, without reserve, applies the Cullenian hypothesis of excitement and collapse to the explanation of its phænomena. He contends that epilepsy consists in a state of collapse, because, previously to the fit, the nervous system is in the opposite state of excitement, and it is invariably found that these conditions alternate with each other: but the proof which he adduces of the existence of the previous excitement, as far as we can perceive, is derived solely from the operation of opium on the epileptic constitution; and we need not stop to point out the inconclusiveness of this kind of reasoning.—The author then takes a view of the different causes to which the disease has been attributed; speculates again on the operation of these causes in the production of the paroxysm; and then gives a detail of the various remedies, animal, vegetable, and mineral, which have been employed for its cure. Most of them were brought forwards under the sanction of high names, and with confident assurance of their efficacy; yet they have all failed to fulfil the expectations that were raised in their favor. Such a catalogue of disappointments might have appalled a man less courageous than Dr. Fraser.

At length, when we arrive near the conclusion of the tract, we come to that which must be regarded as its main object, the recommendation of the *viscus quercinus*. We are informed, in rather a summary manner, that it has been tried in eleven cases, that nine were cured, one terminated fatally, and the other received no material benefit. Of these cases, the account is so vague, that the facts depend altogether on the *ipse dixit* of the author; and, though we are far from wishing to insinuate the slightest personal disrespect, we must confess

confess that, on such subjects, the bare assertion of an individual is not sufficient to obtain our unqualified confidence.

The style of this pamphlet exhibits a florid eloquence which bears a strong resemblance to the productions of a juvenile pen; and this youthful appearance is farther supported by the profusion of learned quotations, with which we are absolutely overwhelmed: for we should infer that a person who had seen much practice, or had his time much occupied by his profession, would not have had the opportunity of searching through so many musty volumes, or, if by chance he had toiled through them, would have been thoroughly convinced that they had little value.

Bos.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *A Letter to the Editor of the Times.* By Mr. Horne Tooke. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Mr. Tooke's name may attract a degree of curiosity towards this pamphlet which it is not calculated to gratify. It relates merely to the recent duel between Sir F. Burdett and Mr. Paull, and refers to circumstances preceding that event, rather than to the transaction itself; of which Mr. Tooke professes ignorance, except as to the strange mode, adopted by Mr. Paull, of calling Sir Francis out of his bed in the middle of the night.—Mr. Tooke is very severe on Mr. Paull, whom he represents as forcing himself into the friendship and political party of Sir F. B. with interested views. Mr. Paull has retaliated in the newspapers, personally, and through his friends; and *vituperation* is the order of the day. Should Mr. P., however, be once more on his legs, the *indelible character* of Mr. H. T., as well as his years, will no doubt excuse him from a walk at sun-rise in Coombe Wood.

G.2.

Art. 32 *Letters, Animadversions,* &c. respecting the New, or Christ's Church in the City of Bath; and the Practice pursued there of deducting a Third Part from every Collection raised at it for the Use of two Charitable Institutions in the said City. 8vo. Pamphlet. Bath.

This title does not clearly express the fact on which the letters contained in the pamphlet animadvert. The ground of complaint is that, whenever at the New or Free Church, erected to accommodate the Poor, collections are made for the benefit of two charitable Institutions (the General Hospital and Infirmary) in Bath, this Church deducts *a third part* for its own use. Dr. Falconer justly reprobates this practice, calling it 'preaching the Gospel to the poor at the expence of the sick;' and Dr. Gardner concurs with him in this opinion. In Mr. John Bowles, however, this singular conduct finds a strenuous advocate, but his mode of reasoning does not appear to have given satisfaction. This gentleman's defence of Mr. Daubeny has provoked some pointed animadversions from Dr. Shephard, Dr. and Mr. T. Falconer, and Mr. Warner. Though the Governors of the General Hospital do not object to the mode of Contribution at Christ's Church, the public will feel an aukwardness in the practice, and must be desirous of having a less objectionable method pursued.—The contents of this pamphlet have been extracted from the Bath Chronicle.

Art. Mo.y.

Art. 33. *Interesting Conversations on Moral and Religious Subjects*; interspersed with Narrative: by a Lady. Large 12mo. pp. 268. 5s. Boards. Williams and Smith.

If amusement be the reader's object, he may find it here; for here are conversation parties, rural walks, tea tables, card tables, balls, &c.; and if more serious thoughts should please him, here also he may find, in heterogeneous association, a sermon, and dialogues controversial and religious. The fair author, indeed, seems apprehensive that she shall, in this respect, be charged with a degree of inconsistency: but she rests her defence on a consideration of 'the various avenues by which the human heart is accessible, and the prevailing dispositions of those persons for whom the work is particularly designed.'

We must confess that this is by no means the performance, as some might conclude, of an ignorant, conceited, or unqualified author;—it is executed with attention and skill, and rendered interesting and entertaining beyond what might have been expected. The characters are on the whole sustained with propriety and satisfaction; and all is brought, in a kind of natural and easy way, to a successful conclusion in behalf of that party which it is the writer's design to favour and recommend. The drift of the volume may not be immediately apprehended: the reader, perhaps, for a moment at least, may be at a loss to determine whether it is Unitarianism or Calvinism which is here intended to sue for our regard;—and strangers to the production may be rather astonished that it should have either of these objects in view. We should ourselves have been in this number, had we not been obliged to peruse it; and though we speak candidly and favourably of the performance, we cannot approve of the sectarian zeal, let it attach to whom it will, which confines truth and piety, and almost if not entirely salvation, to itself, while others are left to perish.—Such is high Calvinism; though the present work attempts to mollify its forbidding and terrifying appearances.

Had not the title page assigned the book to a Lady, we should have inclined to attribute it to Mr. Rowland Hill, although it ranks higher than the generality of his performances.—We may point out a mistake or two:—P. 121. Mr. Good asks his companion 'why he calls Cowper *his* favourite,' when it does not appear that Cowper's name had been before mentioned.—P. 174. Mrs. Meanwell speaks of changing her *religion*, which is certainly an improper and a vulgar mode of expression: her *religion* had been and still was the *Christian*; although she might now have different views concerning some of its instructions, from those which she had formerly admitted.—In p. 199. reference is made to Matth. vii. 14. concerning which, judicious commentators have remarked; "this *straitness* is not meant as belonging to the way itself, but as occasioned by the persons whose vices and prejudices do generally hinder them from entering into the way."

Art. 34. *A Practical Treatise on Brewing*, adapted to the Use of Private Families and Publicans who brew their own Ale. With proper Directions for conducting each Process with certainty. The Directions are selected from Experiments made with upwards of

of 150 Brewings; wherein is shewn the Use of the Thermometer and Hydrometer. To which are added, Rules for conducting the Brewing without those Instruments. And wherein is manifested the Loss that may be sustained by improper Mashing. By A. Shore, who has been Butler to Sir T. Broughton, Bart. near 30 Years. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Reviewers, who cannot always, in these hard times, obtain the generous juice of the grape, have often lamented that more attention is not bestowed in manufacturing as perfect a fluid as may be possible from malt and hops: and that, while so much pains are taken to procure good wine, the natural beverage of the country not only receives no improvement, but is suffered to be so scandalously deteriorated, that a man might travel through half the kingdom without meeting with any of that "nut-brown ale" in which our forefathers delighted. The high price of malt and hops, with the disappointments experienced in brewing, has discouraged private families from attempting to make their own ale and beer, and has thrown them into the hands of the public brewer; who furnishes them with a beverage that consists of mixtures with which they are unacquainted.

We do not undertake to say that Mr. Shore's treatise contains *perfect* directions, but he has given laudable attention to the subject, has offered observations on brewing which appear to us to deserve notice, and has supplied rules which will be useful to the inexperienced practitioner. His book has also the merit of being concise.—After having noticed the fact that twenty-seven millions of bushels of malt are annually consumed in this country, he expresses his surprize that 'while gentlemen of all ranks are exerting themselves in agricultural pursuits, so little attention should be paid to an art which takes so large a proportion of the produce of the land, a great part of which is absolutely wasted.' In confirmation of this assertion, he remarks that, by unskilful brewing, one third of the malt is left in the grains; and in his detail he informs us of the great savings which he has effected.

The rules contained in this practical treatise are arranged under the heads of Brewing, Malt, Hops, Water, Mashing, Boiling, Fermentation, Gauge of the Casks, &c. and Management in the Cellar. Mr. Shore recommends the use of a thermometer in mashing; and he observes that the proper degree of heat for the first mashing is confined between 170 and 183 degrees: but to those who have not this instrument his direction is that, for the first mashing, one gallon of spring water be added to every four gallons of boiling water. When the saccharine matter has been thoroughly extracted from the malt, the next difficulty which occurs is the mode of obtaining a perfect fermentation, the acquired heat of which is between 74 and 79 degrees. Mr. Shore, who is an experienced brewer, gives also rules for the management of beer in casks.

Art. 15. *A few Thoughts on the Creation, Generation, Growth, and Evolution of the Human Body and Soul:* on the Spiritual and Immortal Nature of the Soul of Man: and on the Resurrection of the Body, at the Last Day, in a spiritual, incorruptible, and glorified State. 8vo. pp. 171. 3s 6d. sewed. Hatchard.

Great

Great modesty is affected by this writer as he enters on the discussion of the difficult and momentous subjects mentioned in the title: but, before he concludes, he feels a proud satisfaction in the success of his undertaking. In the introductory remarks, he wishes that 'some enlightened divine, who is much better able to consider the subject, would *finally settle* these important doctrines;' at the end, however, of the fourth section, he seems to think that he has, in some respects, saved this enlightened divine the trouble of finally settling a part of the controversy; for he adds, 'I may venture to assert, that if that excellent man Dr. Taylor was now alive, he would rejoice, yea greatly rejoice, to see the subject (i. e. the separate existence of the soul) placed in that clear point of view, in which it is now permitted to appear.'

From this proud review, which the author makes of his own labours, the reader may be led to suppose that some wonderful discoveries had been effected, and that the reasoning faculties had been exerted with unprecedented felicity: but a perusal of the essay will not realize such lofty expectations. The author's qualifications for metaphysical warfare are very moderate. Among his arguments in favour of the doctrine of the existence of the soul in a state of separate consciousness, after its separation from the body at death, the mention of the appearance of Moses, with the soul of Elias on the mount of Transfiguration, occupies a very prominent station. He asserts that Adam was made a living animal, and that the soul was subsequently communicated: yet he maintains that now bodies and souls are generated together; 'that parents are capable of generating children, each having a body and a soul; that the former extends as it evolves to the size and shape of the latter; and that the configuration of the human unembodied soul is similar to that of the body.' He asks, 'why may not the soul possess (indivisibly) an head, heart, and limbs of an indivisible and spiritual nature, analogous to those of the body?' We shall not undertake to reply, but shall only say that such a method of resisting Materialism is not likely to obtain any great success.

When as a critic this author attempts, in a note at p. 23, to explain the meaning of the word *Behemoth*, and tells his readers that the term occurs in Psalm 50., we must tell *him* that he is under a mistake. Mo-y.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 36. Preached in the Parish Church of Richmond, in Surrey, October 12, 1806. By Charles Symmons, D.D. 8vo. Pamphlet, not sold.

In whatever light we regard this composition, we can speak only of it in terms of commendation: for the elegant tribute here paid to the memory of the late illustrious Charles James Fox reflects the highest credit on the feelings and understanding of the writer. An extract or two will speak more strongly in favour of this sermon, than any account of it which we can give; and though our limits will not permit us to insert the impressive general observations by which the eloquent preacher is conducted to the passages which we quote, our readers

readers will but do him justice if they suppose them to be introduced in a manner that is perfectly easy and natural.

'If the acknowledgment of these interesting truths would be forced from us by a view of the human world in any of its ordinary aspects, how strong and how affecting must be our conviction of them in seasons eventful and fateful like the present. Within the period of a few months, and at a crisis of fearful and portentous moment, Death has been peculiarly and awfully conversant with the illustrious of our land. In this short interval of time, we have seen the Minister, who for many successive years had presided over our counsels, expire in the vigour of his age; and we have seen also the hero, who had led our fleets in an uninterrupted course of victory, fall in the great moment of triumph and leave behind him only a name. The moon has circled only a few times round our earth since India shed the tear of bitter regret upon the ashes of our Cornwallis; and England and the world are now summoned to deplore their irretrievable loss in the genius and the beneficence of Fox. Yes, my Christian friends, not many hours have elapsed since we heard the solemn words of the text pronounced over the mortal remains of, perhaps, the first statesman, if we respect the illumination of the head and the amplitude of the heart, to whom our island has yet given birth. Yes, my friends! the spectacle has only just passed from our eyes of the myriads of a great people standing in dumb sorrow to offer the last affecting testimony of their gratitude and love to their friend and their benefactor. Yes, my friends! the proud metropolis of Britain is scarcely yet recovered into activity, since the hearse of its patriot minister threw gloom over its streets, and we saw it, with all its tumult and all its idleness, hushed and humbled by the imperious affliction. Grief sat upon the general countenance; and, while the dust was committing to the dust, we beheld whatever was most exalted and dignified, in our country, by rank, by talents, or by virtues, weeping at the pathetic spectacle, which was presented to them of human instability, and weeping also for the miserable disappointment of their own fondly cherished hopes of patriotism or of friendship. The scene was inexpressibly awful and impressive: the Genius of England appeared to hover over it in the majesty of sorrow, and the marble of the great Chatham, immediately overlooking the hallowed grave, seemed animated into speech; and, with the shades of the mighty dead, whose ashes crowded the venerable fane, in still and moving accents to say to his new associate, "Art thou, also, become weak as we? Art thou become like unto us?" My Christian brethren! the influence of the scene still vibrates in my nerves; and it is not easy for me to detach my thought from that friend of man, whose body I then saw delivered to the ground. Pardon me, therefore, if I indulge myself for a few minutes by pausing on a subject which adheres very closely to my heart. The consecrated place, in which I now stand, shall never be prostituted by me to the purposes of flattery: and who, my friends, would flatter the dead? The hand, which can no longer be extended in benefit, will not be touched by the lip of the sycophant; and when we kindle incense upon the grave,

grave, the offering may be made to principle or to feeling, but never can it be intended as propitiatory of fortune.'—

'With all his plans, for the public good, disappointed; deserted by the crowd of his political adherents; with his heart and his motives slandered, and even his darling popularity stolen from him by the succesful enterprizes of fraud, his philanthropy and his love of his country remained undiminished. No opposition, no injuries could excite him into acrimony, or infuse a drop of venom into his veins to taint the pure balminess of his blood. When a friend, on whom he hung with almost idolatrous regard, broke from him in the paroxysm of political madness, and with curious cruelty explored in his attack on him, every avenue to pain, far from repelling enmity with enmity, he discovered his sensibilities of wrong only with tears and with entreaties; and he subsequently wept, with a pertinacity of affection almost without example, over the sepulchre of that very man who had unrelentingly spurned all his offers of reconciliation, and who, with reference to him, had expired in the bitterness of resentment'—

'Truth compels us to acknowledge that he had faults; but they were faults unallied to malignity or to meanness: they were the genuine offspring of his warm and sanguine nature; and they flowed from the same fertile region from which many of his virtues drew their source: they were faults which have been discovered in some of the most elevated and the most amiable of our imperfect kind: they were faults, in short, which if we must deplore, we find it impossible to resent.'

The late editor and vindicator of *Milton* appears with consistency in the sentiments of this discourse. G. 2. Jo.

Art. 37. Preached at Rochdale, April 13, 1806, on Occasion of the Death of the Rev. Thomas Threlkeld, Minister of a Dissenting Congregation in that Place. To which is added an Appendix, containing some Account of the Life and Character of Mr. Threlkeld, and particularly of the Powers of Memory and of the Treasures of Knowlege possessed by him. By Thomas Barnes, D.D. Fellow of the American Philosophical Society. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed at Manchester.

Of this sermon we need only say that it offers some pertinent and practical remarks, adapted to the occasion, on 2 Cor. iv. 7. In the Appendix, which is the most interesting part of the pamphlet, Dr. Barnes notices the distinguishing features in the character of Mr. T. Threlkeld, who was born at Halifax in Yorkshire, April 12, (N.S.) 1739, and died April 6 1806. Very uncommon powers of memory were possessed by Mr. T. 'He was,' says Dr. B. 'a perfect living Concordance to the Scriptures. You could not mention three words, except perhaps those words of *mere connection* which occur in hundreds of passages, to which he could not immediately, without hesitation, assign the *Chapter* and *Verse* where they were to be found. And, inversely, upon mentioning the Chapter and Verse, he could repeat the *Words*. It was, as might be expected, a favourite amusement of his fellow Students to try his powers, and they were never known to fail him in a single instance. This Faculty continued with him

him unimpaired, to the day of his death: For, astonishing as the assertion may appear, it is believed by all his friends to be literally true, that he never through his whole life forgot one single number, or date, combined with any name or fact, when they had been once joined together, and laid up in his Memory. When once there, they were engraved as upon marble.'

With nine or ten languages he was well acquainted; and 'in History Mr. T. had, with an accuracy, an extent, and a quickness equal to what we have seen in the English Bible, and in the Languages, he joined so perfectly *names*, *places*, and *events* with the *Year*, the *Month*, and the *Day* to which they severally belonged, that they lay in his mind in regular order, and in inseparable connection, ready to be produced in a moment, in any Company, and upon any occasion.' In Biography and Heraldry, the same faculty of recollection was singularly displayed: but Dr. B. adds that Mr. T. was not inclined to quote a long passage of fine poetry, or of splendid eloquence, and that on subjects of Taste and Belles Lettres he did not excel. It appears that this gentleman could collect materials, but could not employ them; for of his amazing treasures of memory he made no use. Such a faculty, without judgment, is no subject of envy. Mr. T. rather trifled than reflected; and he would have been more agreeable and more useful in the world, could he have exchanged the half of his extraordinary memory for the same quantity of common talents.

May.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our learned readers, who have inquired concerning the Leipzig ÆSCHYLUS, are informed that they will find an ample account of its merits (or rather demerits) in the *Appendix* to our last volume, which is published with this Number of the Review.

The *Reveries of Constantia* have never yet reached our eyes, and her letter was to us the first information of their having appeared "in form substantial." Their provincial birth has kept them from our knowlege till it is almost too late for us to christen them; and indeed the present times of bustle and of contest are altogether unfavourable to these bantlings of meditation.

A Constant Reader's long letter arrived too late for notice, in our last Number; and we must now decline the discussion of it. We cannot say that the writer has effected any change in our sentiments, or reconciled us to the idea of *endless torments*, by intimating that 'the *eternity* of the sinner's misery *may* be requisite to promote the *eternal* happiness of the just man made perfect.' Such a notion is surely absurd.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. LII. of the M. R. is published with this Review, and contains FOREIGN LITERATURE, as usual, with the Title and Index, &c.

Errors, pp. 8, 47, 74, 80, 83, 90, 91.